DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 063 925 JC 720 156

TITLE	Junior College Research Review. Volume IV.
INSTITUTION	American Association of Junior Colleges, Washington, D.C.; California Univ., Los Angeles. ERIC Clearinghouse for Junior Coll. Information.
PUB DATE	[70]
NOTE	68p.
EDRS PRICE	MF-$0.65 HC-$3.29
DESCRIPTORS	Academic Probation; *Activism; *College Students; *Curriculum; Educational Finance; Educational Research; Evening Programs; *Junior Colleges; *Research Reviews (Publications); School Community Relationship; Teacher Evaluation; Teacher Recruitment; Trustees

ABSTRACT

The ten issues comprising the fourth volume of the Junior College Research Review are presented in this document. Topics discussed include: students, curriculum, activism, trustees, faculty evaluation and recruitment, financial support, community relations, and academic probation. The first three volumes of this publication are included in JC 720 155 above; the fifth and sixth volumes are included in JC 720 157 below. (RN)

ED 063925

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JUNIOR COLLEGE RESEARCH REVIEW

Volume IV

September 1969 - June 1970

JC 720 156

ERIC Clearinghouse for Junior Colleges

in conjunction with

The American Association of Junior Colleges

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ED 063925

Volume 4, Number 1

ERIC

JUNIOR COLLEGE RESEARCH REVIEW

September 1969

Published by the American Association of Junior Colleges

FACULTY RECRUITMENT

The need for qualified faculty members is an issue of continuing concern at all levels of education. This problem has become intense in the two-year college—the fastest growing segment of American education. Presently there are 84,427 faculty members teaching 1,954,116 students in 993 junior colleges;[1] by 1980, student enrollments are expected to swell beyond 3,000,000 in 1200 junior colleges.[2] The subsequent demand for additional faculty members will assure top priority for personnel recruitment during the coming decade.

What recruitment policies should be established by junior colleges? How do junior college administrators determine their needs for additional faculty appointees? From what sources can potential teachers be drawn? How should prospective faculty members be selected? These topics are explored briefly in this issue of the *Junior College Research Review*, which is limited to documents prepared for ERIC input by the ERIC Clearinghouse for Junior Colleges. All documents cited in the bibliography may be obtained from EDRS, as explained on page four. Additional documents pertaining to faculty recruitment may be located in ERIC's official abstract journal, *Research in Education*.

Recruitment Principles and Policies

Before active recruitment of faculty members is launched, certain basic principles and policies should be formulated by local or state governing boards. As stated by Kennedy (ED 027 894) these are (1) the development of job descriptions that identify duties and responsibilities of each job; (2) the continuous search over a broad geographic area for capable personnel; (3) the establishment of criteria such as personal characteristics and staff balance; (4) the systematic selection procedure, involving a variety of appraisal techniques; (5) the participation of administrators, supervisors, and instructors in the selection process; (6) the assignment of staff members on the basis of the requirements of the positions to be filled, individual abilities, experience, and preferences; and (7) the promotion or appointment of persons within or without the system to higher positions. According to Kelly (ED 022 440), guidelines should be developed that would specify a time period within which a candidate would be told of the institution's decision to hire or not hire, reimburse the applicant for expenses incurred in the interview or job investigation, and make known to the applicant the range of salary available by rank in relation to placement criteria.

Whether junior college boards are, in fact, taking the initiative in these areas was questioned by Kennedy (ED 027 894) in his 1966 study focusing on 30 institutions in Illinois and Maryland. Only one local district in Illinois and none of the individual participating institutions in that state had developed recruitment policies; in Maryland, not more than six local districts and four institutions had developed recruitment policies. (However, Kennedy noted that both states had general policies regarding recruitment of personnel.)

Prior to launching a recruitment campaign, the recruiter should be thoroughly familiar with the employment policies of his junior college district. Otherwise, faced with the question of whether more than one member of the same family can be hired by the same institution—or any of an infinite number of similar queries—an erroneous, unsanctioned, and unenforceable commitment might be extended, causing only embarrassment and delay to the college's overall recruitment program.

Determination of Needs

To determine its need for new faculty members in higher education for the years 1959-75, the state of California (ED 011 193) followed the procedure below:

1. The present full-time enrollment (students carrying 12 or more units) for each segment was divided by the number of full-time faculty members (those employed for more than 51 per cent of their time) to establish the current faculty-student ratios . . .

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[1] William A. Harper (ed.), *1969 Junior College Directory* (Washington: American Association of Junior Colleges, 1969).

[2] Joseph P. Cosand, "The Community College in 1980," in *Campus 1980* (New York: Delacorte Press, 1968). Alvin C. Eurich (ed.).

2. These ratios were then applied to the projections of full-time enrollment for each year to 1975 to determine the total staff needs for each segment. The number of new staff needed each year to meet the increased enrollment was then obtained by subtracting the total staff projected for each year from that projected for each subsequent year.

3. The total faculty needed for each year was then obtained by adding to the figures indicated in item 2 the number of new faculty needed to replace losses from retirement, death, resignation, and other causes within the total faculty of each prior year.

How much time is involved in determining faculty needs? At Northern Virginia Technical College, it was found during the initial four-month period of the school's history that 1,225 hours of staff time was expended in (1) estimating faculty, administrative, and clerical needs; (2) interviewing applicants from the local area, from a professional employment agency, and from a temporary agency; (3) selecting the faculty and other personnel; and (4) preparing the faculty pre-service training program, including the making of final teaching assignments. Considering related activities (such as budgetary matters), more than 3,500 hours were devoted to the faculty function. Overall, "Sixteen man hours of staff time were used for the hiring of each faculty member" (ED 010 020).

Sources of Qualified Teachers

A "qualified" junior college teacher is generally regarded as one who has at least a master's degree in the subject being taught. Additionally, Wattenbarger (ED 014 283) cites the ability to teach as a qualification for a junior college appointment. This is particularly applicable to the junior college, inasmuch as it professes to be a "teaching" institution (with research and publishing being secondary—or even neglected—activities). Hence, the problem confronting the junior college faculty recruiter is compounded not only by the task of seeking sufficient numbers of properly certificated teachers, but also the difficulty of finding an ample number of *competent* (if not gifted) teachers.

The major source for potential junior college teachers is secondary education. Wattenbarger (ED 014 283) reports that, nationally, 33 per cent of the junior college faculty members are obtained from high schools. Other major sources are graduate schools (20-23 per cent), colleges and universities (17 per cent), and business occupations (11 per cent). Heinberg (ED 019 058) observes that effort is being directed to the recruitment of qualified teacher personnel from the military service and from the ranks of retired instructors as well. Moreover, he asserts, "Some junior colleges have even recruited among the college-trained wives of regular instructors."

Schmidt maintains that at the time active recruitment begins, administrators should "Apprise [graduate] students . . . of the opportunities available to qualified . . . instructors in [the] community junior college . . . " (ED 014 269). This, she states, could be accomplished through faculty and administrator guest lectures at various institutions, scheduled recruitment appearances at various institutions, and hosting invited students at the local campus.

Whether the recruitment techniques are characterized by the above examples or are more often evident in informal, personal contacts with and recommendations by other staff members is not revealed in the documents at hand. Neither is the number of unsolicited applications received by junior colleges.

Selection of Personnel

With whom does the responsibility for faculty selection reside? With the president or the dean—not the department chairman, according to a 1967 National Science Foundation report (ED 015 733) that contrasted junior college hiring practices with those used by four-year institutions in 1964-65. Stated the report:

> [T]he departmental chairman at the 4-year institution acted as recruiter in more than two-thirds of the cases; the corresponding official at the 2-year institution, in fewer than one-third of the cases. Even in the larger junior colleges, the responsibility for recruitment was delegated to the department chairman in 46 percent of the cases (in the smaller junior colleges, 22 percent of the cases).

Nevertheless, department chairmen increasingly are involved in the selection process, as are other faculty members. In one study, it was reported that 90 per cent of the 63 responding California junior colleges make use of advisory committees in both locating *and* selecting teachers (ED 019 958). In the establishment of Northern Virginia Technical College, a panel of three persons reviewed applicant records and interviewed all applicants (ED 010 020).

Pratt's study (ED 023 382) of the relationship between the degree of authoritarianism in the personalities of public community college presidents in New York and the incidence of authoritarianism in the personalities of the respective faculties they hired revealed that presidents tend to hire applicants who share similar tendencies. On the other hand, the faculty members who remain longest with the institution are those who are *unlike* the president in this regard. That is, "a more flexible faculty member was more comfortable in an environment with a less flexible president, and a less flexible faculty member was more comfortable and tended to experience less felt conflict with a more flexible president." This indicates that personality assessment of teacher applicants is a valuable segment of the screening and selection process. Pratt endorses the use of the California F Scale[3] for this purpose.

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[3] T. W. Adorno, et al. *The Authoritarian Personality* (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1950).

Conclusion

Although of value, the documents reviewed for this issue present a sketchy picture of the principles and techniques of faculty recruitment in junior colleges. More information is needed.

Of particular interest to the Clearinghouse would be reports pertaining to (1) the prediction of effective teaching; (2) the assessment of behavior which characterizes effective teachers; (3) the role that teachers, themselves, should play in attracting students to the teaching profession; (4) the duties of faculty recruiters, including the preparation and distribution of college brochures, job descriptions, and faculty needs, the scheduling of recruitment sessions at various universities, and the preliminary interviewing session; (5) junior college liaison programs with secondary school systems, universities, and professional placement agencies; and (6) selection standards for interviewing applicants, collecting and assessing applicant records, and administering local tests or inventories.

Dale Gaddy

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Starting a Community Junior College, by B. Lamar Johnson, American Association of Junior Colleges, Washington, D.C. 1964. 102p. (MF-$0.50; HC-$5.20)

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The Faculties of Virginia's Colleges and Universities (Staff Report No. 8), by R. Jan LeCroy and others, Virginia Higher Education Study Commission, Richmond, Virginia, 1965. 147p. (MF-$0.75; HC-$7.45)

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Problems of New Faculty Members in Community Colleges, by Hugo E. Siehr, Michigan State University, East Lansing, 1963. 80p. (MF-$0.50; HC-$4.10)

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Obtaining and Keeping Faculty in an Associate Degree Nursing Program, by Mildred Schmidt, 1966. 24p. (MF-$0.25; HC-$1.30)

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Faculty Quality – A Challenge to the Community College, by Philip D. Vairo, (Journal of Higher Education, Volume 36, Number 4, April 1965). 5p. (MF-$0.25; HC-$0.35)

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Volume 4, Number 2

ERIC JUNIOR COLLEGE RESEARCH REVIEW

October 1969

Published by the American Association of Junior Colleges

ED 063925

RESEARCHERS VIEW JUNIOR COLLEGE STUDENTS

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STUDYING POTENTIAL STUDENT CLIENTELES

The implicit disavowal of the research function in the community-junior college has not inhibited its growth in the last decade, but has surely contributed to the sometimes chaotic nature of its development. There is no reason to doubt the prediction of continuing, rapid growth of the public two-year college, in enrollment, size of staff, number of campuses, and breadth of programs and services. The absence of a good research base for community college planning has necessitated the use of linear, *status quo* projections of growth that occasionally produce absurd or economically unsound estimates of quantitative measures needed in planning.

Much research is being proposed and some is now being undertaken to assess the effects of education in the community college on the young people who are attending in rapidly increasing numbers. National higher education agencies and testing companies have rather recently given the two-year colleges a strong assist in conducting both survey and prediction studies of their incoming students, using standardized instruments. Biographical inventories, interest and value indices, aptitude and placement tests, and institutional self-study instruments are all available, with research and analysis services offered as part of the program. Too, government agencies are increasing their reporting requirements for colleges with any type of federal funding. Their demands can be expected to grow as they continue to examine the need for increased federal funds for the colleges. The National Center for Educational Statistics may be expected to play an important leadership role in nationwide data collection, within the guidelines for assuring the privacy of student records. Management information systems are being developed regionally and often in state and local units to facilitate the analysis of data for decision-making in the colleges.

None of this is meant to imply that the two-year colleges are now giving adequate attention to research on their local programs and operations, least of all on their impact on students. There are some portents of progress in this area of research that make it advisable to consider turning to a new start-up research program. The future that will be constructed for the community colleges will be totally unsatisfactory in an era of universal opportunity for post-secondary education unless a new start in research is made almost immediately. The research to be proposed as necessary and feasible for each college has two major thrusts. The first is a kind of in-depth educational census of the college-age youth and adults in the community or region served by the college. The second involves the analysis of the multiple educational needs of the several clienteles the college might serve.

It is unlikely that the community colleges will have either the funds or the desire to be "all things to all people," as the proposed research emphasis might imply. Instead, the local college should take the initiative in accomplishing the research so necessary both for cooperative planning among post-secondary institutions and for setting its own priorities among the possible clienteles and program functions. Community survey and feasibility studies leading to the establishment of community colleges are not new, of course. However, they have tended to produce stereotyped findings and conclusions, which scarcely justify their repetition in the race to establish a new community college each week. Similarly, college-initiated studies of potential students are not new. Local high school graduation rates, grade progression ratios, birth rates, and the like are examined in an attempt to predict future enrollments. However, the projections are based on *status quo* assumptions about the complexion of the college service area, and often about the very nature of the college (except, of course, its size and possibly the location of future campuses).

Research on potential college clienteles and their educational needs can be a cooperative endeavor involving the college faculty, staff, and, above all, the students themselves. Community college students can be trained to do interviewing, coding of data, elementary statistical analysis, and, in general, to serve as research aides supervised by faculty with appropriate qualifications and interest in such activities. Professional research direction is needed, of course, if the research is to rise above the sheer activity ("doing") level which characterizes many community surveys. An important asset of the student-researchers is their identification with the community that is the college service area—their familiarity with the schools, knowledge of the local subcultures, and acceptance by the residents when they continue to live in the neighborhoods. Minority groups in particular resent being studied by white outsiders, but can and will communicate with student-research assistants who share their concerns.

Starting with their current involvement in studies of students and programs, the community colleges might move first to study the needs and characteristics of their potential student clienteles, and then, in ever widening circles, to assess their present and possible effects in providing opportunity to them.

Assumptions for Planning

The following philosophic assumptions may be useful, if not wholly essential, in constructing a framework for community college research.

1. The percentage of college-age youth enrolled in some type of post-secondary program will continue to grow and the proportion attending a community college will increase over time as a function of the addition of programs and increased accessibility.
2. Adult students, including school dropouts, will constitute an ever-larger segment of the community college

by Dorothy M. Knoell

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enrollments in a variety of programs ranging from basic education to retraining for employment, parent-child development, and self-realization.

3. The distinction between "occupational" and "transfer" students is antiquated, since almost all students plan to work within a few years after entering community college (if they are not already employed), very often after only one year in college.
4. All but a few students are dropouts from higher education at some point in time – many after high school, about half again as many after one year of college, and nearly all before the doctorate or highest level professional degree. Most students drop out sooner than they expect at the time they enter the community college.
5. Irrespective of the level of education they have achieved, most dropouts will need some further formal education during their lifetime, for upgrading, retraining, refreshment, self-fulfillment, or other reasons.
6. Community college students want as many options kept open to them as possible, for as long as possible, in terms of both occupational and educational choice. Their apparent preference for liberal arts transfer programs reflects this desire to keep the options open even after entering college.

A number of operating assumptions are essential to the design of studies to assist in constructing the future educational opportunity to be offered by community colleges.

1. Certain geographic service areas can be defined for the community colleges, for which they may design studies of the needs of their potential clienteles.
2. Community colleges have responsibility for meeting the educational needs of adults, some of whom will be school or college dropouts, and many of whom will have received their public school education outside the college service area.
3. The colleges can no longer afford to be inactive in research about and service to their community, nor should they be naively colorblind and non-class-conscious in assessing how well they are serving the community.
4. The multiple educational needs of potential students must become the focus of research by the colleges, to a degree at least equal to the attention given to research on the manpower needs of employers and society at large.
5. The colleges will continue to meet the needs of their students and the community for occupational education, but will also be concerned with improving the functioning of the students in their multiple adult roles as parent, householder, consumer, and citizen.
6. Research can help the college planners and decision-makers by providing data about the probable appropriateness of extending opportunity to certain groups of new students, the expected effectiveness under conditions of improved services and/or instruction, and the size and nature of groups that would benefit by entirely new programs and services.

Some Designs for Study

Assuming at each college some minimum on-going program of research on its enrolled students, attention will focus on the design of studies of potential student clienteles in the college service area, and of studies of the unmet needs of the area for educational opportunity beyond the high school. Each set of studies might be described as concentric circles, starting with the clienteles most likely to become students at the college, and the functions already assigned a high priority by the college. Finally, and more briefly, attention will be given to the "grand design" to assess the effects of the expanded opportunity offered by the college on its new and traditional students, on the nature of the college itself, and on the community at large.

Potential Student Clienteles. A census of the current high school seniors appears to offer the best point of departure for new studies by community colleges of potential student clienteles. A recent grant from the Ford Foundation to the American Association of Junior Colleges has made the design of a model for such studies possible, including the development of an interview schedule. The basic data are selected characteristics and college-attendance plans (or desires) of high school seniors. The data are used to construct matrices of college-going behavior for men and women, black and white, categorized by academic ability and socioeconomic status. Grades, rank in class, and standardized test scores available from school records can be used to develop a suitable index of academic ability for grouping students into four categories of ability. A simple, fairly reliable index of socioeconomic status is the average family income for the census tract where the student resides, again for the purpose of placing students in four categories based on the index. (Family income and other sociological data for each census tract are available to the colleges for research purposes, thus reducing the amount of data collection and decision-making normally required to develop such an index.)

The analysis of differences among high schools is also an important aspect of the model. School differences in college attendance may then be related to accessibility to the community college, degree of social integration of the school, the nature of its curriculum, and its proximity to census tracts with certain average family incomes. The alternative educational plans of seniors in different types of high schools are also of interest, i.e., numbers choosing the local community college, other types of colleges, business schools, technical institutes, hospital schools of nursing, and postgraduate programs in the high schools. A comparison of plans to attend college (as indicated by the submission of transcripts) and actual college attendance may uncover "non-students" who are good candidates for enrollment in community colleges. The 4 x 4 matrices (academic ability and socioeconomic status, for college- and non-college-goers) also reveal whatever concentrations of ability and financial need exist for recruitment to the community colleges. Above all, such analyses reveal inequalities in opportunity for higher education, barriers to college attendance, and, far too often, lack of information about opportunity.

Samples of non-college-goers were interviewed in the Ford Foundation study, in an attempt to obtain information useful to the colleges in attracting new types of students and planning for them. The major lines of questioning in the interviews with non-students were their feelings about their high school experiences, their plans for immediate and eventual employment, the characteristics of jobs and employment situations important to them, the attitudes of the men toward military service, and their interest in continuing their education beyond high school under various circumstances and in different types of programs. The interviews often led to an exchange of information about the local college and, in some instances, to actual college enrollment. The expressed need for additional education or training by those who would not become full-time students should be of interest to the colleges in their planning of continuing education programs.

A logical extension of the studies of college-going behavior of high school graduates is a study of high school dropouts with unmet needs for further education at various levels. A census of high school seniors who did not graduate was made as part of the Foundation-funded study, to find out how many young people "almost made it," to the point of qualifying for college and jobs as high school graduates, but who did not make it for reasons of motivation, academic failure, disciplinary suspension, or the like. The census produced fewer senior-level dropouts than expected, but a by-product of the analysis was the discovery of a significant number of adult graduates who are potential students in community colleges. The census of school dropouts needs to be extended in three directions if it is to be complete for college-age youth. First, information is needed on the needs and other relevant characteristics of dropouts who left school before the senior year, particularly in localities where the community college may admit dropouts who are at least eighteen years of age. Second, a census is needed of dropouts from high schools outside the college service area (often from out-of-state schools) who come to the locality served by the college, sometimes with their families, but more often alone. Their prior educational experience and their needs and interests may differ in both quality and content from those who drop out of local schools. Finally, college dropouts from four-year institutions constitute a sizeable potential student group for community colleges, particularly those recently established in localities where there may be a considerable reservoir of undereducated college dropouts.

The census of college-age youth who are potential clienteles of the community college will in most cases start with the public school records and counselors to obtain an accounting of high school graduates, seniors, and recent dropouts. Local youth agencies, neighborhood centers, state employment agencies, and church groups are all sources of information about those school and college dropouts who are beyond the reaches of the local public schools. A model for a more comprehensive census of the educational status of non-college-goers is being developed by an urban community college in the Washington area. A city-wide roster of high school seniors without post-graduation plans for college, employment, or military service was prepared under community agency auspices, with the high schools providing both names and transcripts. The community college used the city-wide lists to prepare neighborhood rosters of non-college-goers to be contacted by students, to inform them about opportunity for further education at the college (including financial aid, occupational programs, and special services). An attempt was made to reach the seniors in their homes, with other members of the family present who might also be able to benefit from programs and services offered by the college. The action study was concentrated in poor neighborhoods where college attendance rates are lowest. Adult students in "New Careers" programs were used as interviewer-recruiters, in the expectation that they would have good rapport with the poor families who were in many cases their neighbors. Thus, while the focus was on informing and recruiting high school seniors, the approach used made it possible to survey entire families, who might include dropouts of various ages and at various levels of completion, the undereducated and underemployed adults, and young students who might then become interested in college in time to improve their public school performance.

Two other approaches were taken by urban community colleges that received funding from the Office of Economic Opportunity for research and development projects. The major intent in each situation was the identification of the educational needs of undereducated, poor adults and the design of programs to help meet these needs. In one instance, the focus was on the needs of families of children in Head Start programs in the locality of the college facility. In the other, the families of disadvantaged students in a special college program were the object of the study of unmet adult needs for further education. A survey of family units provides a wider range of data than does a census of a particular age group, e.g., high school seniors. The community college cannot be expected to develop programs to meet all needs that emerge from such surveys, or to provide opportunity for all who need further education or training. However, identification of potential student clienteles with varied interests, needs, and qualifications is the necessary first step a college must take in setting priorities for programs funded both locally and federally. Other educational-training agencies in the community may then join forces with the college to assure that the educational needs of all will be met, now and in the future.

The "Grand Design." Two-year colleges are just now beginning to study their impact on their full-time students. Very little is known, however, about the impact various student clienteles may have on the college, or about the eventual impact two-year college-educated students will have on their community. Certain basic questions concerning the interactions of student, college, and community are researchable.

1. How and to what degree are students who attend a community college different from graduates of the same high schools who do not attend college at all,

a) at time of graduation from high school,
b) one year after high school graduation,
c) at the time a significant percentage of the students complete college programs,
d) five and ten years later?

2. What impact does the introduction of new programs and services have on the characteristics of the student body, in terms of
   a) the success of students already enrolled (or new students like them),
   b) the attraction of new types of students to these and other programs,
   c) the demand by the community for still other programs and services?
3. What changes take place in the manpower needs of the community as a concomitant of the development of new occupational curricula by the college, as shown by
   a) areas of critical manpower shortage,
   b) employment in New Careers fields,
   c) enrollment in high school vocational programs,
   d) enrollment in proprietary schools, union apprenticeship programs, on-the-job training, and other programs not under college auspices?
4. What effect does the enrollment of a significant group of disadvantaged students have on the community, in terms of
   a) performance in school of younger members of the family,
   b) interest in and increased appreciation of education by adult members of the family,
   c) enrollment in education-related activities by adults in the family, including job training, consumer education, political education, and child development programs,
   d) group interest in and demand for better education in the students' neighborhood?

Summary

The community college must study its potential student cilenteles—their changing needs, interests, values, and activities—if it is to construct a future that is a realistic response to the community that supports it. Size is important, in terms of quantitative needs for facilities and staff. However, failure to take into account the characteristics of community groups now without opportunity for education after high school will result in either a diminution of the college's influence in the community or a drift toward mediocrity, or both. Some predict that the community college will become a predominantly community service institution in the near future, as a result of a growing demand for new patterns of continuing education for the under-educated of all ages. Other agencies and institutions are expanding their programs to serve young people at this time of huge growth in the two-year colleges. Area vocational schools and technical institutes are bidding to perform the occupational education functions. Four-year colleges and universities, while continuing their trend toward selectivity, are actively seeking the untraditional student with undeveloped talents who has been previously overlooked in the search for excellence.

It is no longer enough to be accessible, open-door, free, and comprehensive. The community colleges must go out into their service areas to survey their potential clienteles, while continuing to assess their impact on their enrolled students.

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NEEDED: Rx for Community College Student Assessment

Growing numbers of students are enrolling in growing numbers of community colleges. Evaluation of achievement potential and assessment after enrollment of these students pose real problems closely associated with the philosophy of the institution. The purpose of this paper is to clarify some of the problems and to discuss possible approaches, but, most importantly, to call for concerted effort in the area of student assessment in the community college setting.

Most would agree that we need to know something of the achievement potential or educational development of community college students upon enrollment. One of the problems therefore is that the typical student who enrolls in a community college does so as the result of a late decision. Just how late can be seen in Table I, which reports the applications near the end of August as a percent of final enrollments for the Fall quarters, 1967 and 1968, at Area Ten Community College in Cedar Rapids, Iowa.

Table I

Applications at End of Third Week of August as Per Cent of Final Enrollments at End of Fall Registrations

Division	Per cent 1967	Per cent 1968
Vocational-Technical	63	89
Arts and Sciences	55	50

Clearly a sizable portion, about half in the Arts and Sciences Division, apply shortly before classes begin. What are the problems? First, data from a national testing program are frequently not available; these students simply did not anticipate the need for the test while enrolled in high school. At Area Ten Community College, the American College Test (ACT) is "required" in the Arts and Sciences Division of full-time enrollees and of part-time enrollees after they accumulate twelve credit hours. In the Vocational-Technical Division, the General Aptitude Test Battery (GATB) is used to assess potential upon enrollment. Table II reports the enrollment for Fall 1967, Fall 1968, and the numbers tested in 1968.

Table II

Headcount Enrollment: Number Tested

Division	Fall 1967 Full-time	Fall 1967 Part-time	Fall 1967 T	Fall 1968 Full-time	Fall 1968 Part-time	Fall 1968 T	Number Tested 1968
Vocational-Technical	389	27	416	653	36	689	419*
Arts and Sciences	274	237	511	589	370	959	391**
Total	663	264	927	1242	406	1648	810

*American College Test

**General Aptitude Test Battery

The much larger percentage of full-time enrollees in Vocational-Technical, coupled with notably earlier registrations in this division (Table I), can be explained in several ways. The undecided student (that is, the late registrant) is postulated to drift more readily into Arts and Sciences, whereas the Vocational-Technical enrollees have more clearly defined goals. In each division, however, the problem remains. We should like to describe an entering class and, further, to assess year-to-year changes and program-to-program differences in potential. Instead we are limited to studying a *sample*, probably positively biased. It is imperative that the size of such samples be increased.

Some schools report a get-tough policy followed by rapid improvement. This should be a cautious step, as is obvious from the incongruity of testing requirements for admission and an open-door policy. Clearly, we can ask a student to provide information about himself. We need it to plan instruction; we need it to help him help himself. It is quite another matter to withhold participation in any phase of the community college experience pending such information.

Some schools, including Area Ten Community College, politely ask the students to come in for residual testing. Often this request is made only after a faculty member or research specialist has called for the data. When faced with the prospect of giving his time and usually his money, these students frequently remain untested. It appears that some block of time in the opening week of a quarter needs to be found for collecting the information that it is inappropriate

by Barbara Thomas

Area Ten Community College (Iowa)

to collect at registration time. There is probably a real need to divorce the testing needs from any economic considerations. At Area Ten Community College, in Fall 1968, ACT data for 74 per cent of those who enrolled and who had been tested indicated that they expected to work. In many cases, the work load of these students exceeds twenty hours per week. Another indication of financial need is how often this is given as a reason for withdrawal. Table III reports reasons for withdrawal. Again, we are talking about a *sample* of a total of 328 students who enrolled in Fall 1968 but did not reenroll in Winter 1969, only 119 completed a withdrawal form.

Table III

Stated* Reasons for Withdrawal
Fall 1968

Reason	Number	Per cent
1. Lack of interest	24	20
2. Illness	22	18
3. Conflict with work	19	16
4. Financial	14	11
5. Not stated	9	7
6. Transfer to another school	6	5
7. Moved from area	5	5
8. Drafted	4	3
9. Enlistment	4	3
10. Marriage	2	1
11. Arrest	2	1
12. Inability	2	1
13. Personal	2	1
14. Illness in family	2	1
15. Dissatisfaction	1	.8
16. Pregnancy	1	.8

*Stated versus real reasons are another problem.

Consideration of withdrawal data points up other difficulties of student evaluation. Longitudinal studies are needed. Relationships between performance and other factors – predictors of success, employment load, involvement in activities, clarity of goals—need to be explored. Studies of this nature are difficult to complete when they involve students enrolled in programs suffering an attrition rate as high as 47 per cent for full-time students and even higher for part-time students. A busy staff can do little more than blink at the turnover. Of course, the problem of student attrition has greater priority in areas other than evaluation; perhaps maturation of the community college effort will lessen this problem.

Placement is another important area where evaluative efforts run into difficulties unique to the community college. The recurrent generalization in Area Ten Community College's 1968 in-house testing supported the data provided by ACT and GATB results. These students are most noteworthy in their diversity. Consequently, an instrument that can distinguish (that is, place efficiently) at one end of the spectrum may, and often does, fail miserably at the opposite end. Another area on which test-construction people should concentrate is in normative data for comprehensive community colleges, for vocational-technical students, and for adult education programs. The comprehensive community college is not a junior college. Yet junior college normative data are frequently the best guides available.

A final deterrent to student evaluation in the comprehensive community college is the over-worked condition of the faculty. It has already been noted that the student body is a diverse group. Providing challenging and appropriate instruction for this type of student body, while teaching 15 to 16 credit hours in the Arts and Sciences Division and more in the Vocational-Technical Division, leaves little time to contemplate student growth. Two solutions come to mind. The teaching load could be reduced, possibly by providing assistance. The economics of the situation may favor this. Equipment and personnel to provide services such as machine scoring and item analysis may well be feasible and would also boost faculty morale.

Too few solutions, or even possible solutions, have been offered. It is hoped that the problems discussed will evoke discussion, proposals, and reports of successes and failures.

COMPARISON OF VALUES: Two-Year vs. Four-Year Students

by Carl E. Glenister
State University of New York

With the creation of many new two-year colleges and the increasing enrollments in established two-year colleges, administrative officials, student personnel workers, and faculty are becoming increasingly aware of the importance of knowing about and understanding the types of students who enroll. Basic information is needed concerning their academic backgrounds, interests, aspirations, and values if the total college community is to join forces to provide a milieu to make the college experience more meaningful.

For one of the current research projects on this campus (State University of New York), information on the values of students is being collected. This paper will describe the data that were collected and interpreted for the two-year technical college students enrolled in this college and compare them to the data reported for four-year college students. The *Study of Values Scale*, by Allport, Vernon, and Lindzey [1] was used to collect the data.

The *Study of Values Scale* was designed primarily for use with college students or with adults who have had some college experience. The classification of the scales is based on Spranger's *Types of Men* [2] which defends the view that personalities of men are best known through a study of their values or evaluative attitudes. The six basic interests or motives in personality measured by the scale are: theoretical, economic, aesthetic, social, political, and religious values.

Description of College Community

The student sample was drawn from one of the six agricultural and technical colleges sponsored by the State University of New York. All but two of the 28 degree programs are designed as terminal programs, although 30 per cent of the graduates transfer to four-year degree programs throughout the United States. The major divisions of this college include: Agriculture, Business, Engineering Technology, and Nursing.

Fifty-five per cent of the 1,400 students enrolled at this college come from Northern New York State, a traditionally conservative agricultural area. In recent years, however, some small industries have moved in. The remaining 45 per cent of the students come from other parts of the state.

Twenty-five per cent of this student body is considered economically deprived and therefore qualified for scholarships and other financial aids. About 60 per cent of the student body is using loans to pay for some part of the college experience.

Method

The *Study of Values Scale* was administered to a sample of freshmen students during the first month of the academic year. Two groups were selected, one male and one female, all living in residence halls. The groups were selected and matched by sex and by the score each student received on the college entrance exam.

After the scale was scored, the means and standard deviations were calculated separately for the males and females. Next a t-test was computed to see if significant differences might be found in the six value areas when the data on the two-year student were compared with the data registered for the four-year students in the *Study of Values Manual*. The results are presented in Tables I and II.

Discussion

Theoretical: In the theoretical area of the scale, the mean score of the two-year technical college male students was lower than that of the four-year college male students. The difference is significant at the 1 per cent level. Spranger indicates that "A person in pursuit of theoretical goals characteristically takes a cognitive attitude, one that looks for identities and differences; one that divests itself of judgment regarding the beauty or utility of objects, and seeks only to observe and reason" [2].

In reference to Spranger's interpretation of the theoretical scale, this suggests that the two-year college male is less interested in the practical aspects of learnings. The four-year college males seem to come closer to Spranger's explanation of theoretical goals.

The two groups of female students have similar means on this scale, indicating that college females, in general, are not as theoretically oriented as college males.

Economic: Both the male and female two-year college students had higher mean scores on the economic scale than the four-year college students. The difference in the mean score of the males is significant at the 1 per cent level and the difference in the females' mean score is significant at the 5 per cent level.

Spranger mentions that "the economic man is interested in what is useful and practical." An economic person is described as "one that is thoroughly practical and conforms well to the prevailing stereotype of the average American business man" [2].

The students enrolling at this college seem to be somewhat more concerned about business and financial matters than the four-year college student. They perhaps are attracted by the numerous business curricula offered, as 35 per cent of the student body is enrolled in such a program. These students learn about various business functions and prepare for jobs in the business world.

Aesthetic: The two-year college females' mean score on the aesthetic scale is significantly lower than the mean score of the four-year college female. This mean score is statistically different at the 1 per cent level. The two-year college males' score is lower than the four-year college males' score although not significantly.

Spranger indicates that an aesthetic man places more importance on grace, symmetry, or fitness of experience. This person finds his chief interest in the artistic aspects of life, as opposed to theoretical points of view [2].

It appears that the lower mean score of the two-year college students on this scale is compatible with the score on the economic scale. The two-year college student seems to be more interested in the practical and useful than in the abstract and creative. It seems that this information could be valuable for those who are planning the activities programs on this campus.

Social: The two-year college male and female groups both had a higher mean score on the social scale than did the four-year college males and females. The means of the two-year college students were significantly higher at the 1 per cent level of confidence.

Table I

Comparison of 2-year with 4-year College Males

	2-Year College Males N-71		4-Year College Males N-2489	
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.
Theoretical	41.0*	5.75	43.75	7.34
Economic	45.49*	6.95	42.78	7.92
Aesthetic	33.79	7.43	35.09	8.49
Social	39.73*	7.03	37.09	7.03
Political	43.01	5.82	42.94	6.64
Religious	37.92	7.86	38.20	9.32

Table II

Comparison of 2-year with 4-year College Females

	2-Year College Females N-70		4-Year College Females N-1289	
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.
Theoretical	35.49	6.04	35.75	7.19
Economic	39.67**	7.15	37.87	7.30
Aesthetic	36.62*	7.80	42.67	8.34
Social	44.94*	6.17	42.03	7.02
Political	41.37*	6.57	37.84	6.23
Religious	41.30*	7.81	43.81	9.40

*Significant at or beyond the .01 level.
**Significant at or beyond the .05 level.

Spranger characterizes the social person as one who has great love for people. He feels that the social scale specifically indicates the altruistic or philanthropic aspects of love, which are important in human relationships. He also feels it is an indication of a religious attitude [2].

The conservative, small-town backgrounds of many of the students at this college may have influenced the higher mean score on this value. The small-town atmosphere, which often enhances closer interpersonal relationships, could affect the way these students feel about personal interaction and probably influenced their reactions to the items on the *Study of Values Scale*.

Political Scale: The two-year college females' mean score on the political scale is significantly higher than the mean score of the four-year college females. It is statistically different at the 1 per cent level. There was no significant difference in the mean scores of the two groups of males.

According to Spranger, a political person is primarily interested in power. Leaders in any field generally have a high power value, and competition and struggle play a large part in their life [2].

It seems, as measured by this scale, that the type of female student who selects and attends this two-year college may be more power-motivated than her four-year counterpart. The greater importance placed on the political aspects of life may be influenced by the fact that most of the females of this college anticipate taking jobs after graduation. Since the types of job they will be taking are often quite competitive in nature, they must prove their worth through mastery of skills to achieve upward mobility.

The males enrolling both at this college and at four-year colleges have similar power and political values. This may indicate that both groups of males anticipate taking jobs that will provide competition and struggle. As traditionally men have accepted this role of the bread-winner in a family, it may have influenced the similarity.

Religious: The two groups of college females have a significantly different mean score on this scale at the 1 per cent level of confidence. The four-year college females have the higher score, but there was no significant difference in the mean score of the two male groups.

Spranger states, "The highest value of the religious man may be called unity." He defines the religious man as "one whose mental structure is permanently directed to the creation of the highest and absolutely satisfying value experience" [2].

The lower mean score of the two-year college females seems to support the data discussed earlier in this paper. The female students who participated in this project do not seem to be highly interested in the philosophical or the more creative facets of life, but are interested in its practical aspects.

Summary

The males at this college seem to be more interested in the practical aspects of learning and less in the abstract or theoretical. They are primarily interested in things that will enable them to be proficient in a particular job situation. These males also seem to realize the importance of good human relationships and to have a fairly altruistic or philanthropic outlook on love.

The females at this college also seem to be more interested in the practical aspects of learning than in the theoretical. They seem to be more interested in what is useful and are not overly concerned with aesthetic aspects of everyday situations. They have an interest in power, although they also realize the importance and value of human relationships.

This study presents a partial value description of the type of student that seems to be attracted to this college. It will be interesting to see if significant value changes occur after they have been on campus one year. If a significant change is found, we will then be able to assume that the institutional goals and atmosphere have had some influence.

As mentioned earlier, it seems important that the total college staff, administration, faculty, and student personnel workers be aware of the type or types of student and the values they hold important. Better programs can be planned and more effective techniques can be used when we have knowledge of the interests, aspirations, and values of the students with whom we are interacting.

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THE JUNIOR COLLEGE TRANSFER STUDENT

by Terry O'Banion

University of Illinois

In a recent review of major research efforts on the junior college student, Cross [3] concludes:

> We possess only traditional measures to describe a student who does not fit the tradition. The inevitable result is that we picture America's newest college student as being less adequate than his peers at the tasks of higher education—tasks which have been developed over the years for a different type of student. We must conclude that intellectual dimensions sharply differentiate junior college students, as a group, from senior college students. The junior college student is less able—on our present tests; he is less intellectually oriented—on our present measures; and he is less motivated to seek higher education—in our traditional colleges.

Fortunately, however, current research instruments are being re-evaluated in light of new social and economic developments. Research designs are in a state of transition from strictly quantitative measurements of academic aptitude and achievement to more qualitative measurements. Every major testing company in the nation is experimenting with new instruments to measure the needs and characteristics of the non-traditional student who attends the junior college.

At the present time, however, only the usual kinds of instruments are available to measure the usual kinds of student and, when the junior college student is compared with the four-year college and university student, this must be kept carefully in mind. When the nature of the junior college student is described, therefore, the description is within a frame of reference where he most often appears in a less favorable light than his counterpart on the campus of the four-year college or university.

The objective of this review is twofold. First, it will describe in a general way what is known about the junior college student. Second, it will examine some of the characteristics of the transfer group in particular. Much of the following information is summarized from Cross's *The Junior College Student: A Research Description* [3].

The Junior College Student

A great many research data have been accumulated comparing the academic ability and achievement of the four-year college student with those of the junior college student. Student academic ability is, of course, one of the most thoroughly researched areas in higher education. Almost all national, regional, and statewide studies that include large and diverse samples of junior college students have discovered that they have lower mean scores in academic ability and achievement than four-year college and university students.

In a major study conducted by Project Talent involving some 400,000 students, the junior college group fell below the four-year college group on every one of fourteen measures of academic ability, ranging from reading comprehension, mathematics ability, biology, vocabulary, and creativity, to abstract reasoning. From these data, Cooley and Becker conclude that junior college students are more like their non-college counterparts in academic ability than they are like four-year college students [2].

On the variables relating to socio-economic background, research findings indicate that the parents of junior college students have a lower socio-economic status than parents of students in four-year colleges and universities. While such studies demonstrate that the junior college is playing a highly significant role in the democratization of higher education, they also reveal the growing class distinctions that exist between the junior college and the four-year college group.

A number of research studies have surveyed the attitudes of parents toward college. These attitudes have been shown to have a profound effect on student decisions to attend two-year or four-year institutions. The SCOPE (School to College: Opportunities for Postsecondary Education) study indicates that only half the students entering junior colleges received strong encouragement from their fathers to attend college, while almost two-thirds of those entering four-year colleges received such encouragement. This statement is particularly significant in light of the evidence that only one-fourth of the students who fail to enter college at all receive such encouragement [3].

Few students report that they postpone going to college on the basis of cost alone. The SCOPE questionnaire reveals, however, that finances are a prime consideration in student selection of a college. This was true of almost half (46 per cent) of the junior college students studied. In contrast, only one-third (35 per cent) of the senior college students indicated that cost was a major consideration in their selection of a college [3]. ACE (American Council on Education) data gathered by Astin show similar findings [1]. Location of the college is also important, because the junior college student generally lives at home, where he can receive free room and board for two years. Research indicates that this fact has a significant impact on the student from a lower socio-economic background.

There are also marked differences between junior college groups and four-year college groups in personality characteristics. In the ACE Survey by Astin, which included 250,000 freshmen, junior college freshmen were seen, as a group, to be less self-confident than four-year college and university freshmen in traits such as academic ability, drive to achieve, leadership ability, mathematical ability, intellectual ability, and writing ability [1]. Junior college students are less likely to value humanitarian pursuits, are more dependent, more authoritarian, more likely to be cautious and controlled, and less likely to be venturesome and flexible in their thinking. Junior college students are less interested in intellectual activities, which, of course, are the major concern of four-year colleges and universities. Junior college students are more oriented toward vocational choice and other practical considerations. Getting a good job and earning a living are of great importance to them. The only area where they expressed confidence equal to or greater than the four-year college group was in non-academic abilities. These include manual skills, athletic abilities, cooking, sewing, and the like [3]. These pursuits, if football is excluded, are not held in high esteem by universities.

These, then, are some of the general characteristics of the junior college student as compared with the four-year college and university student. The research indicates that in almost all instances he comes off second best. It has not been the intent of this review to contribute to the development of a negative perception of the junior college student. On the contrary, its purpose has been to describe some of the obstacles facing him so that positive programs can be organized for his development.

In this brief overview of characteristics of junior college students in general, what factors help define the characteristics of transfer students in particular? How do these characteristics contribute to the problems with which transfer students must cope?

Problems of the Transfer Student

The term "transfer shock" has become part of the educational language to describe what happens to the junior college student who transfers to the four-year college or university. The condition usually refers to the student's academic progress, but it is also a meaningful description of his other reactions to his environment.

One of the most thorough studies illustrating the impact of transfer shock on academic achievement is by Hills [5]. He summarizes 20 studies related to transfer students and reaches the following conclusions:

1. Junior college students in their first term of transfer experience the loss of half a letter grade. There is a usual but variable partial recovery of perhaps half this drop over the remainder of the transfer students' upper-division work.
2. The transfer students do not do as well as the native students by about .3 GPA.
3. Fewer transfer students than native students graduate.
4. Transfer students take longer to graduate than do comparable native students.

It can be hypothesized that the transfer shock that results in a reduction of grades and in a longer time to complete a program of study is probably related to some psychological disorientation caused by a number of factors.

The junior college student has been a dependent student. He has lived at home with parents and close friends for 19 or 20 years. His adolescence is prolonged, while his four-year college and university counterparts are being forced to experience independence through new ways of living and learning. Often relieved to be free of the home environment and to be in the university where he can struggle with new ideas and new ways of relating to others, the transfer student must learn how best to do this in the context of his new-found freedom. At the same time, he must learn how to deal with the insecurities of living alone without the comfort of family direction and security. This is the dilemma confronting the junior college transfer student.

The junior college transfer student, like the general college student, complains about the impersonality of the university. For the most part, however, his complaints occur at a time when his fellow juniors have already become adjusted to the system. Such adjustment may be particularly difficult for the transfer student because the junior college attempts to be a more helpful and more nurturing kind of institution than the university. Junior colleges are especially committed to a program of student personnel services that provides individual attention. Every student has an academic advisor, often a professional counselor, available whenever the student needs help.

In a study by Knoell and Medsker [6], junior college students rated their academic advising and counseling on the junior college campus as being more helpful than that available on the university campus. Counseling or advising offered in the senior college is usually too infrequent and the sessions too short. Faculty advisors in the four-year colleges and universities are generally unfamiliar with the junior colleges, often uninterested in the advisee, and seldom available for consultation with the student. When the student has become used to help, he is quite discouraged to feel that no one cares or has the time in a larger institution to help with his problems.

One junior college in Florida, located in the same city as a large university, continues its counseling and advising services to the transfer student after he enrolls in the university. The student frequently returns to the junior college to get the kind of advice he requires. This particular junior college has established an informal policy of requesting that the transfer student seek help in at least three offices on the university campus before returning for consultation.

The junior college transfer probably comes to the four-year college or university with less confidence in his academic abilities than the native four-year college student [1]. The junior college is quite often the second choice of this student; he comes to accept himself as a second-class citizen because he was not granted admission to a four-year college or university directly from high school. This attitude is often complicated and reinforced when he meets similar perceptions at the university. Admission personnel, professors, and other students at the university often perceive the junior college as a second-class institution and communicate, sometimes not very subtly, these perceptions to the transfer student. The comment of a president of a famous four-year liberal arts college in the East is a good example. On a nationwide television broadcast, she described the junior college as "the wastebasket of higher education" [7].

The junior college transfer student is further disoriented by the large array of social programs available at the university as compared with the junior college. Since the junior college student generally commutes, and meets personal, social, and recreational needs within the community to which he is accustomed, social programs on junior college compuses are generally not extensive. The transfer student is confused by all the choices at the four-year college or university. Although he recognizes that he must work hard and study, he is also influenced by the desire to belong and become part of the social environment. Unfortunately, the recruitment of most special-interest groups at the university level is directed toward freshmen. Sororities, fraternities, and other social organizations gear their "rush" programs toward the entering freshmen. As a consequence, the transfer student can easily become a "loner" on the campus. He enters the Junior Class at a time when social groups have become fairly well stabilized.

The junior college transfer student also faces difficult financial problems. Some are forced to drop out of school after the completion of their sophomore year to earn money to transfer. Others enroll in the four-year institution with only enough money to see them through the first semester, in hopes of receiving financial assistance. Financial aid is generally available for college students, but the transfer student is caught in a bind.

Here is a typical example: A student, admitted too late to apply for financial aid the first term, works to support himself. Because of the pressure involved in adjusting to his new environment, his grades usually drop as much as a half grade point during the first term. Often this disqualifies him for financial aid the second semester, and also makes it difficult for him even to secure part-time employment. Under such circumstances, he becomes discouraged. Knoell and Medsker discovered that approximately 40 per cent of the transfer students who voluntarily withdrew from the university listed "lack of money" as one reason for dropping out [6]. Gleazer [4] sums up these problems when he writes:

> Very often these people enter the junior college in the first place because the publicly-supported institutions are close to home and the tuition is either low or non-existent. Also, a large per cent of the students work while they attend the junior college. When they go away to a four-year college they find that the costs are more than they have estimated and that state and institutional financial aid programs are not organized with the best interests and needs of the junior college student in mind. Very few four-year colleges have earmarked scholarships or made special financial provisions for transfer students.

Other important contributions to the transfer difficulty are admissions policies and evaluation procedures. The junior college student may be admitted on probation because his college is only two years old and not yet eligible for accreditation. He may have to secure recommendations from his high school principal and supply a high school transcript. Although he took a battery of tests on entering the junior college, he is told that he must undergo additional testing at the four-year college or university. There is little or no evidence that the results are used either in making decisions about the admission of most of the applicants or in advising enrollees about their majors and programs [6]. All this bureaucratic red tape only makes him question the relevancy of his two years of "education" at the junior college.

If he is admitted, his credentials are still subject to careful scrutiny. He discovers that his general education biology course will not transfer because he had no laboratory work. His three-hour course in personal development, which he considered the most important experience at the junior college, will not transfer because the university does not grant credit for human growth. The lack of prerequisites means that he will have to take additional course work before he can begin on his major. Further credit is whittled away because his courses are numbered in 100's or because they appear to be technical rather than liberal arts.

Considering these and other circumstances, "transfer shock" begins to have meaning. A work-weary student, aware of his lower socio-economic background, with documented evidence of his lower ability, dependent on home and community, and under financial stress, is suddenly in competition with his more sophisticated counterparts. Perhaps "shock" is too mild a word.

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THE CIRCLE OF EVALUATION IN THE COMMUNITY COLLEGE

by James W. Trent

University of California, Los Angeles

In society a tension inevitably exists between established norms and changing situations. The way to resolve inordinate tension is to reform the institutions that society depends on for its maintenance. In this sense, reform has never been more needed than now.

The main vehicle for social reform is the college. This is true since higher education is the custodian of our culture and the catalyst for its development. Social reform, therefore, cannot follow without commensurate educational reform. Appropriate research and evaluation are prerequisites to forming sound programs for reform.

Obviously, research has value beyond the quest for knowledge. In addition to this important intellectual exercise, research is essential to the continual understanding of society and its subsequent progress. It is important specifically to education, which is a root of society. Obviously, too, research loses much of its value when it is not related to social action. The days of the exclusive ivory tower are gone. Instead these are critical days for educational evaluators, certainly in the case of the two-year community college.

Increasingly, the community college is assuming most of lower-division higher education. Many educators and government officials regard it as the primary institution to implement universal higher education, for it has been established by federal decree that all who are capable are to have access to college. This means that the community college, more than it ever has before, must deal intensely with the lives, careers, and leadership of our coming generations. It means also that the community college must examine itself to assure that it is not only carrying out its mission, but also doing it in the most effective way. Yet the extensive reviews and critiques of the literature by Cross [7] and Cohen [5, 6] indicate a dearth of systematic research and evaluation pertinent to the community college.

Because of the focal role of the community college in higher education, it can no longer afford to go unevaluated as it has. It is too important to hide behind debilitating defensiveness and clubbishness. The value of its functions and objectives must be demonstrated and, if they are found wanting, a way must be sought for their implementation. We can no longer speak of an open-door college when it is evident that too often it is a revolving-door college. We cannot speak of it as a community college when there is non-communication with important segments of the community. Nor is it appropriate to speak of it as a student-centered college in the face of continual evidence of heavy attrition among its students, certainly not a saluatory experience for them.

What is necessary now is an assessment of the nature and impact of the whole system of community colleges, free from prejudgments and preconceptions. Such evaluation involves much more than most of the little research now done in community colleges, such as counting withdrawals and transfer students, predicting grade point averages from academic aptitude scores (suitable for white middle class students, but probably not for most minority students), preparing for accreditation, or recounting selected successes among graduates, as important as these matters are.

Programs for educational improvement will and, in many cases, should vary by institution. They should, however, be evaluated so that both their shortcomings – almost never mentioned – and effective features can be determined objectively. Too often what is professed to be program evaluation is only a summary of the impressions of those involved in the program. Impression is sometimes helpful to evaluation but seldom sufficient. Systematic research and evaluation of these programs are essential to learn those principles and techniques that are effective, replicable, and applicable to other institutions at a minimum of expense. To deal with reform properly, the research must also consider the implications of the evaluated programs for change on a single campus and for the entire system of higher education. Moreover, the research should consider the implications not just for the next few years, but for many years to follow.

Fundamental to such a systematic evaluation of the community college and its programs is an understanding of the dynamics of the different institutions in the community college system and of the different students who attend these institutions. At present, there is no systematic or system-wide information on the impact of the community college or any of its programs on its students or on the broader community it serves. Since 1960, however, there has begun to develop a body of research on the characteristics of community colleges, of their students, and of the outcomes of their programs. The research is comprehensive and relatively sophisticated, especially when compared with research on the community college before 1960. Contributors include: Astin, Panos, and Creager [1]; Baird and Holland [2]; Berg and Axtell [3]; Clark [4]; Hills [8]; Hoyt and Munday [9]; Knoell [10]; Knoell and Medsker [11]; MacMillan [12, 13]; Medsker and Trent [14]; Panos [15]; Richards and Braskamp [16]; Richard, Rand, and Rand [17, 18]; Tillery [19]; and Trent and Medsker [20]. Many aspects of this research have been summarized and synthesized by Cross (1968).

The research indicates measurable environmental characteristics of community colleges, such as cultural affluence, technological orientation, and transfer emphasis that distinguish among community colleges and between community colleges and four-year colleges, and that are somewhat associated with the differential characteristics of students attending diverse community colleges.

More is known about the students than about the institutions, and what *is* known is problematical. This is evident from the generalizations that follow, based on comparisons of two- and four-year college students.

Those who attend community colleges show less measured academic aptitude and less academic motivation, as exhibited by such factors as the late decision to attend college, lack of interest in being there, and uncertainty about completing their program. They come from a broader, but generally lower, socioeconomic status. They are less introspective, less self-directed toward articulated goals, and less knowledgeable about alternative goals, whether in reference to careers or education; they are, moreover, less likely to realize their goals. They show less interest in ideas and abstractions and are generally less intellectually disposed and less autonomous in their thinking and attitudes; they are also less prone to change on these dimensions. They show less originality, fewer signs of leadership, and less involvement with college activities, whether extracurricular or community. They are much less likely to persist in college beyond two years and more likely to take more than four years to obtain their baccalaureate degree if they do transfer to a four-year college.

The findings summarized are not necessarily negative by implication. More needs to be known about the meaning of these findings and the ultimate attainments and behavior of community college students before such a judgment is warranted. Also community college students are not all of a kind. There is a great deal of diversity among community college student bodies on the traits enumerated, and also a great deal of overlap between two- and four-year college students on these same traits.

Nevertheless, the findings *are* problematical on two counts: (1) they suggest that a number of characteristics shared by many community college students can hinder the realization of the potentials of the students, including their potential contribution to society; and (2) they suggest that different characteristics of the colleges can have an impact affecting the traits and success of students. We come, then, full circle: community colleges cannot realize their own potential or sufficiently help their diverse students to realize theirs until they have a clear understanding of the dynamics of their various institutional characteristics and programs and the effects of these elements on their students and the larger community. This entails, in turn, consistent and comprehensive research and evaluation.

A start in this direction – after obtaining research personnel – is to determine the criteria that will represent the desired outcomes of the community college. Beginning criteria might well include the realization of student or institutional potential; the attainment of student goals such as ability to transfer to a four-year college, vocational competency, or general knowledge; the attainment of institutional goals such as the development of critical thinking and social awareness among students; or the achievement of the specified behavioral objectives of a program or course.

The demonstration of the criteria may begin with the posing of key questions. For example, does the community college make a difference in the value, attitudes, and attainments of its students? Does it influence different groups of students in the same way, such as those who are unmotivated academically, who are of less or very high academic aptitude, minority students, or those who enter college with vague or unrealistic goals? Does the community college influence all of its students, even those who remain enrolled for only a short time? Or do "successful" students progress in spite of the college? If the college makes a difference, how? What critical combination of institutional, faculty, student, and other factors lead to what results? To what extent are the processes leading to certain outcomes generalizeable and replicable for use by others? For the future, what are the most effective strategies to use in the comprehensive evaluation of community colleges?

Answers to these questions must await subsequent discussion, when they can be treated in some detail. For the moment, increased awareness among faculty administrators and funding agencies of the problems to be researched is urgent. Equally urgent is consideration of the means to muster the resources for the research and to encourage its use as it takes place. Precedents are shaping up for this kind of research, evaluation, and subsequent development.

Under way at the Center for the Study of Evaluation at the University of California at Los Angeles is a nationwide study of freshmen, juniors, and graduates from some 75 colleges and universities. It focuses on institutions as well as individuals. Criterion variables derived primarily from an omnibus questionnaire include measures of the following: the amount of involvement in cultural, political, religious, and educational activities; knowledge and awareness of social issues; attitudes toward social issues and social changes; evaluation of undergraduate and postgraduate educational experiences, socioeconomic and cultural background; verbal aptitude; and intellectual and emotional disposition. Contextual variables (institutional characteristics and educational processes) include measures of: campus environment, intellectualism, morale, alienation, discipline, peer group patterns, administrative styles, and demographic features; faculty orientation and teaching modes; and learning styles. Objectives of the study include: the consideration of evaluation strategies; outputs of various types of institutions and institutional programs; the delineation of factors contributing to the output or criteria; and consequent information useful in planning the future directions of higher education on an institutional, regional, and national basis.

The ERIC Clearinghouse for Junior Colleges has initiated a study of the impact of three different types of community colleges on their students. Although this study is on a much smaller scale than the national study, its design and comprehensiveness (comparable in many ways to the national study) are such that it stands to reveal much useful information and many strategies of the type urged in this discussion. Also, one of the anticipated values of this community college evaluation is the deliberate involvement of the colleges' staff in all aspects of the study. In addition to the data gained about student change, tested research designs will be disseminated through the Clearinghouse's publications series.

Both of these projects have great relevancy for the extensive study of community colleges now being proposed jointly by the Center for the Study of Evaluation and the League for Innovation in Community Colleges, which will follow many of the lines of the on-going evaluation of four-year colleges and universities. All of these projects include extensive and intensive dissemination and development activities. Together they promise a quality of evaluation and development throughout higher education that is without precedent.

The ultimate worth of research activities of this sort, however, is dependent on research and evaluation efforts of the many individual colleges in America, whether or not they participate in the projects described. Here, again, a model of widely-based institutional participation in evaluation and development is under way. The Regional Education Laboratory for the Carolinas and Virginia has established a program for Educational Development Officers that is already functioning in a number of participating community colleges. The intent is that the EDO in each college will be more than the institutional research officer familiar to many educators. He will make use of existing research to develop further research and evaluation in his own institution. In collaboration with the administration, his objectives are to uncover problems, suggest solutions, and generate ideas helpful to the highest level of decision-making and implementation regarding present and future programs in the college.

Sufficient financial support, continued collaboration among researchers, and receptivity in the college will surely bring these current evaluative efforts to fruition and encourage their extension. Appropriate developmental reform in community colleges, as in all of higher education, can come in no other way.

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Volume 4, Number 3

ERIC

JUNIOR COLLEGE RESEARCH REVIEW

November 1969

Published by the American Association of Junior Colleges

ED 065922

COLLEGE-COMMUNITY RELATIONS

The emergence of the concept of the public junior college as a community college has been, in the view of B. Lamar Johnson, the most important junior college development of the past 40 years. Greater emphasis is being placed on the "community" aspect of community colleges as the tremendous growth of the past decade continues into the 1970's. Through the provision of community service programs and curricula adapted to the needs of the populace, the community college earns its name. It is obvious, however, that not all community colleges are, in the strict sense, "community" colleges. Some critics have even suggested that the name "community college" is, in far too many instances, a shibboleth. A concerted effort toward the promotion of closer college-community relations is the key to making its name truly descriptive of the role ascribed to it.

This issue of the *Junior College Research Review* examines documents that focus specifically on the issue of college-community relations. They were selected from material received and processed by the ERIC Clearinghouse for Junior Colleges. All have been indexed and abstracted in *Research in Education*. Copies of the reports, both in hard copy and microfiche, are available from ERIC Document Reproduction Service.

Review

The documents reviewed cover a variety of topics bearing on college-community relations: programs designed to serve community needs, public relations, the college image, advisory committees, and community opinion. This *Review* will not undertake an examination of the community service function of the junior college, except where it is touched on within the context of the broad topics listed above.

Programs to Serve Community Needs

The term "community" connotes a close interrelationship between the college and the life of the community; the college looks to the community for suggestions in program planning, then designs programs to serve its constituency. Such a response to the requirements of the particular region served is a hallmark of the community junior college. Several such plans serve to illustrate: forestry technology is emphasized by several colleges in western Washington; agriculture technology, by central California colleges in the San Joaquin Valley; oil technology, by two-year colleges in the Texas oil fields; apparel design, in New York City; and banking, in the Greater Chicago Area. Increasingly, groups of junior colleges are adapting curricula to the economy of a region and, in some instances, are dividing training responsibilities to meet area manpower needs (ED 015 746).

In the avocational realm, as well as the vocational, the two-year college serves the special interests of the community. Short courses, lecture series, concerts, leisure activities and services, and community use of campus facilities — all elements of the community service function — help the community college to meet the challenge of its name.

Public Relations

Public relations are a state of affairs, not an end in and of themselves, and not to be confused with publicity. They are a comprehensive endeavor based on planned actions designed to affect attitudes, stimulate involvement, anticipate controversy, and promote programs. The deeds come first, the words come second (ED 019 050).

The community relations program of the junior college is the result of attention and effort on the part of both the faculty and the administration. Public understanding determines, in large measure, the amount of support, cooperation, and assistance that will be given the college and, ultimately, the amount of benefit derived by its students (ED 014 283).

The term "public relations" tends to connote a negative image, usually associated with supermarket giveaway programs, used-car-lot come-ons, and the straw hats of sideshow barkers. By definition, however, college public relations are the continuing process by which management or administration endeavors to obtain the good will, understanding, and support of its students, faculty, and the public at large — inwardly through self-analysis and correction, outwardly through all means of expression. It may be summarized as doing and telling, 90 per cent and 10 per cent, respectively. Regardless of the definition, a successful public relations program has four essential ingredients: (1) self-analysis and correction, (2) identification with the public interest, (3) involvement, and (4) communications (ED 019 050).

In *Guide to Public Relations for Junior Colleges* (ED 013 647), the overall public relations task is viewed as providing answers to two basic questions: "Is quality education being provided?" and "Is the money being spent efficiently?" The successful operation of any junior college depends on eliminating negative interpretations and establishing prestige — both for the college and for its faculty. Such prestige, however, can be established only when excellence is a fact, and when the fact is communicated effectively. To achieve its goals, the public relations program must (1) assemble facts on the objectives and resources of the college and on areas of public ignorance and possible criticism; (2) pinpoint its target populations; and (3) make full use of its sources of information, including faculty and staff, students, instructional programs, college events, and community services.

The "publics" as targets of the college public relations program are discussed in two of the documents reviewed (ED 013 647, ED 019 050). These publics may be categorized as internal and external. The internal publics consist of the board, faculty, staff, students, alumni, and their parents and families. All others in the community comprise the external publics. The truly effective college-community relations program devotes considerable attention and effort to both categories of public. Abraham Lincoln said, "Public sentiment is everything. With public sentiment, nothing can fail; without it, nothing can succeed. Consequently, he who molds public sentiment goes deeper than he who enacts statutes or pronounces decisions." College personnel charged with molding public sentiment have a responsibility of a magnitude rarely recognized.

Image

The public relations term "image," so often misused, deserves clarification. An image is a reflection of what we are. The creation of an image requires the skillful use of any number of things, but the image is as good and as long-lasting as its original (ED 019 050). One sometimes gets the feeling that the community college, by accepting all comers, projects an image of little prestige. Much appears in the literature of the field about the "image problem" of the community junior college.

Part of this image problem is the result of the community college's lack of identity — lack of agreement within the field regarding philosophy, purposes, and programs–and the defensiveness that accompanies such a void. With a clearly defined philosophy, precise objectives, and programs that meet the stated objectives come self-confidence and a sense of assurance and strength. A positive image is bound to follow a conscious effort at communicating such excellence when it is attained.

Then, and only then, the college can "tell it like it is" with confidence. Even when the message is not altogether positive, it should be told. In this regard, Epperson pleads with the counselors of prospective students to convey a realistic image of the two-year college. Developing junior colleges have five major problems that carry significant consequences for students: (1) limited space and equipment; (2) the nonexistence of a viable educational community compounded by serious program deficiencies; (3) general unavailability of trained faculty and administration; (4) difficulties encountered by students transferring to four-year institutions; and (5) the image of the junior college as a second-class institution, creating prestige problems for its students. If students are allowed to choose after giving full consideration to the strengths and weaknesses of all facets of our diverse system of higher education, those electing the junior college are more likely to hold realistic expectations for their education (ED 016 450).

The image projected by the college will be based on the things it does or does not do, not on what it says. What the college says through the college-community relations program must be in line with what it does (ED 019 050).

Advisory Committees

Advisory committees have become an important and prominent facet of two-year college administration. Their proliferation has resulted from a need for input to the planning and decision-making processes and from a desire by the college to involve representatives of the community in these processes. In a paper dealing with advisory committees in community colleges (ED 014 950), the need for two-way communications between the college and the community is emphasized. Administrative considerations, such as membership qualifications, size, and operation are outlined. A model handbook for advisory committees is displayed, with sections on functions, types, establishment of procedures, effective use of committees, responsibilities of college officials, conduct of meetings, and follow-up of meetings.

Effective use of advisory committees in planning and decision making is an important element in the overall college-community relations program.

Community Opinion

Community opinion of the college can be discerned through institutional research. For this purpose, simple research designs are usually adequate. One such project set out to determine community understanding of the local junior college and its functions. Personal interviews of 367 randomly selected householders were conducted. Of those interviewed, 52.6 per cent had no opinion of the college, 37.9 per cent felt that the college was performing well or adequately, and 9.5 per cent expressed the feeling it was not. In many cases, those who offered an opinion gave no reason for it. No particular segment of the population was found to be more grossly uninformed that any other. The need for more public information regarding the college was apparent (ED 014 984).

Another research project was aimed at assessing the effect of mass circulation of the college newspaper on community opinion regarding the college. One hundred telephone interviews were conducted. The experimental group was composed of those who received both the student paper and the community paper. The control group consisted of those who did not read the student newspaper, as they did not subscribe to the other with which it was distributed. Among questions asked were "Do you believe the college is meeting the educational needs of its students?" and "How do you feel the behavior of the students compares with that of others throughout the United States?" Those exposed to the student newspaper rated both the performance of the college and the behavior of its students higher than did those in the control group. Also, the response "no opinion" was less prevalent among those in the experimental group. The results supported the hypothesis that an association exists between informed individuals and a positive opinion toward the college (ED 014 985).

Summary

College-community relations are promoted in various ways, some of which are encompassed in the public relations program. The results of the total endeavor are reflected in the image and community opinion of the college. Closer college-community relations, achieved through whatever means the college directly or indirectly employs, are important to the goal of making every community college a true "community" college.

Barton R. Herrscher
Regional Education Laboratory
for the Carolinas and Virginia

Thomas M. Hatfield
John Tyler Community College,
Virginia

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ERIC

Volume 4, Number 4

JUNIOR COLLEGE RESEARCH REVIEW

December 1969

Published by the American Association of Junior Colleges

JUNIOR COLLEGE STUDENTS ON ACADEMIC PROBATION

Students responding to the open-door colleges' universal invitation to a post-secondary education often find, by the end of their first semester of college work, that below-average academic performance has resulted in their assignment to probationary status—a warning that they will no longer be welcome unless they begin to meet institutional standards. As one author has quipped, the junior college philosophy "promises the healing fruits of education to 'Everyman,' but the probation policy carries the hooker that 'Everyman' has to be above average in the digestion of this fruit, or be in jeopardy of being driven from the garden" (ED 011 201).

The reasons students are assigned probationary status, the restrictions placed on them once assigned, some of their characteristics, their subsequent success and failure, and some attempts to help them succeed are the subjects of this issue of the *Junior College Research Review*. The search for relevant documents was limited to the collection of the ERIC Clearinghouse for Junior Colleges. Documents cited in the bibliography are available from the ERIC Document Reproduction Service as explained on page four, and additional documents concerning academic probation may be located in ERIC's official abstract journal, *Research in Education*.

Reasons for Probationary Status

A student may be assigned probationary status for various reasons. The most common is the failure to maintain an overall grade point average (GPA) of 2.0 (C), or better, in all college work (ED 019 944, ED 024 375, ED 024 376). If he has not graduated from high school or has received low marks there (ED 016 446, ED 023 381), has low scores on the School and College Ability Test (SCAT) (ED 014 274, ED 023 381), transfers from another 2- or 4-year college where he has been dismissed for academic reasons (disqualified) or been placed on probation (ED 013 601, ED 015 735, ED 024 375), or is readmitted after having been previously disqualified (ED 024 375), he may be assigned probationary or some other provisional status. Considering the typically unselected population at the junior college, the practice of grading to "transfer" standards, and the cumulative effect of grades below the C level on GPA's, it is estimated that more than 40 per cent of all junior college students are on academic probation sometime during their college career (ED 011 201).

Consequences of Probation

Once a student has been assigned probationary status, he may find a variety of restrictions placed on his academic pursuits. A limited number of units (ED 010 734, ED 013 601, ED 024 376), a required series of remedial courses (ED 014 274, ED 024 376), a program limited to evening and/or vocational courses only (ED 010 734, ED 016 446), or a required change of major (ED 024 376) are some of the more common restrictions. Many colleges require such a student to seek academic and vocational counseling while on probation in the hope that this special attention will uncover the problems responsible for his poor performance (ED 019 944, ED 024 376, ED 029 634).

Characteristics of Probationers

The student on probation tends to select a liberal arts program and is usually planning to transfer to a 4-year college despite a typically inadequate college preparation in high school and a need for remedial study, especially in English and mathematics (ED 026 064). Often he has transferred from another 2- or 4-year college where he had been either placed on probation or disqualified, or is being provisionally readmitted to the same junior college from which he had been previously disqualified (ED 013 601, ED 015 735, ED 029 634).

At Los Angeles City College (California), probationary students enrolled in personal adjustment psychology classes were studied in an attempt to identify factors that could account for their poor performance in school. They were found to have below-average verbal, but average nonverbal, I.Q. scores, and to have an average maturational age approximately one-half their chronological age. More than half these students were either left-handed or showed mixed dominance, and nearly every one exhibited some major eyesight or vision problem, with 25 per cent needing corrective lenses. In addition, impulsiveness, depression, and immaturity of self-concept were reflected by the House-Tree-Person Drawing Test, and their reading scores averaged below the 20th percentile on the Science Research Associates Reading for Understanding Test (ED 015 716).

Responding to an attitude measure, an earlier group of entering probationers at Los Angeles City College tended to view college from a vocational, rather than an academic, orientation. Although they indicated that an ideal college student would possess highly developed academic skills and interests, they saw no need to develop such skills and interests themselves. The members of this group who were later removed from probation seemed to possess greater self-ideal congruence and have both higher educational aspirations and higher SCAT scores than those who were continued on probation or disqualified (ED 014 274).

Characteristics of Successful Probationers

Some probationary students appear to achieve greater academic success than others—both in terms of removing themselves from probation and by later graduating from junior college or transferring to a 4-year institution.

At Florissant Valley College (Missouri), successful probationers, besides having ranked higher in their high school graduating class and having earned higher SCAT scores, were absent less frequently, were almost one year older, and carried fewer units than those who were unsuccessful (ED 023 381).

At Los Angeles City College, students readmitted on probation because of disqualification from LACC or some other college were more successful than entering freshmen. Their chances of success were greater if they had completed 21 or more units of college work and had been disqualified from a 4-year rather than a 2-year college. The performance of students who had stayed out of school for a semester or more did not differ from those who had not (ED 010 734).

A statewide study of university and state college students admitted to California junior colleges after disqualification from their senior institutions found them to be largely successful, either graduating from junior college or transferring back to a 4-year school. It was reasoned that emotional immaturity, rather than low ability, was responsible for their original disqualification (ED 015 735).

At El Camino College (California), 70 per cent of the students admitted on probation from 4-year colleges and universities in California eventually graduated or transferred to senior institutions, as opposed to only 33 per cent of the junior college probationers. From the findings of this study, it was concluded that neither a waiting period between disqualification and readmission, nor a restricted number of units each semester on probation contributed to a student's ultimate success (ED 013 601).

Treatment of Probationers

Research on probationary students has indicated little or no relationship between the severity of restrictive probationary regulations and student motivation or success (ED 013 601). Studies of the effects of such sanctions as limited study loads and required periods of nonattendance are inconclusive at best (ED 010 734, ED 013 601). As a result, changes in the penalty (D and F) grading practices and special counseling or training for probationary students have been tried in an attempt to make probation meaningful, not a mere impersonal warning.

Shasta College (California) experimented with penalty grading and probation practices by instituting a policy that allowed students to withdraw from class without penalty any time up to the final examination. Concern that students would sign up in large numbers for classes they had no intention of finishing, and would abuse the new policy by withdrawing even though they were capable of C work did not prove valid, as the increase in withdrawal grades did not exceed a corresponding decrease in penalty grades. As a result, fewer students earned grade point averages below 2.0; thus fewer students were assigned probationary status. Instructors seemed satisfied with the new policy and several indicated that their grading more accurately reflected student accomplishment, since they no longer felt compelled to carry a weak student with a passing grade he had not earned (ED 024 376).

At Santa Fe Junior College (Florida), a similar grading policy has been established for the general education courses common to all programs. In these courses, students earn a grade of A, B, C, or X. An X means that the student has not earned an A, B, or C and will need to do so before graduation (ED 030 424).

Students on probation at Glendale College (California), who attended an experimental series of group sessions designed to provide support and insight into their academic problems, subsequently earned significantly higher grade point averages than a comparison group matched by age, sex, number of units taken, marital status of parents, type of program (academic or vocational), and entrance test scores. Students in the experimental group were observed to improve in appearance and dress, begin joining clubs, increase dating, and obtain part-time work. In some cases, parents informed the college of improved family relationships (ED 014 955).

At Los Angeles City College, the students with the visual-motor dysfunctions mentioned earlier in this review received intensive visual training and postural remediation, resulting in a marked improvement of their visual-motor integration. A need for further research to determine the effect of this improvement on their subsequent academic achievement is indicated (ED 015 716).

Summary

Junior college students on academic probation are no less heterogeneous than the junior college population itself. They range from high-ability students dismissed from 4-year colleges and universities to students with severe visual-motor handicaps. These differences need to be more carefully identified so that appropriate help can be made available.

Special counseling, as required by law for all California junior college students on probation, must be made available so that students can make in-depth, realistic educational and vocational plans. The single 15-minute interview or 50-minute group session reported by one college (ED 019 944) does not provide such an opportunity.

Changes in penalty grading and probation practices are reported to have favorable results. Not only do such changes reduce the number of students on academic probation, but they also switch the college's emphasis from punishing inappropriate behavior to rewarding appropriate behavior. Fears that less punitive grading practices would lead to student irresponsibility have not been warranted thus far, and research on limited study loads, required periods of nonattendance, and other common restrictive sanctions of probation has not shown them to be effective in increasing success among probationary students.

The open-door college has a special obligation to "Everyman," especially if "Everyman" is on probation. For the below-average student, the junior college's open door truly represents the last educational opportunity he will have.

Michael R. Capper

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Volume 4, Number 5

ERIC JUNIOR COLLEGE RESEARCH REVIEW

January 1970

Published by the American Association of Junior Colleges

TEACHER EVALUATION: TOWARD IMPROVING INSTRUCTION

Evaluation of the teaching faculty of junior colleges may be undertaken for a number of reasons including (1) assessment for promotions or merit pay increases, (2) administrative curiosity about the quality of instruction, and (3) the improvement of teaching quality. The last is the most frequently cited reason for instructor evaluation, based on the view of junior colleges as "teaching institutions."

Problems confronting those who want to undertake instructor evaluation include establishing guiding principles, designating appropriate criteria for judging instructor effectiveness, selecting suitable evaluators, and administering effective methods of evaluation.

This issue of the *Junior College Research Review* addresses these problems associated with instructor evaluation. Documents included in this review were selected from materials received and processed by the ERIC Clearinghouse for Junior Colleges. Particular emphasis is placed on those documents relating to evaluation for the purpose of improving instruction. All documents cited in the bibliography have been announced in *Research in Education*. They may be obtained from EDRS, as explained on page 4, unless otherwise noted.

Principles

Regardless of who designs the evaluation procedure and regardless of the techniques employed, certain principles should be followed. Morin (ED 024 361) suggests that

1. evaluation is a complex and vital process and must not be treated casually . . . ,
2. the evaluator must employ "scientific" procedures in an effort to collect objective data,
3. evaluation of individual instructors should focus primarily on definable segments of observable behavior—both of the teacher and of the students,
4. to determine the desirability of changes in student behavior, some prior descriptions must be prepared in operational terms of the type of performance desired,
5. both instructor and evaluator must be cognizant of, and accept as legitimate, the stated objectives of the instructional procedures, and
6. the evaluative procedure must be inherent in the total scheme for instructional development in the college.

Although some apply to certain evaluation techniques more than to others, these or similar principles should be carefully considered as the first step in any evaluation procedure.

Criteria

There appears to be no consensus regarding the specific criteria for judging effective teaching. Bannister (ED 022 450) states that there are three general categories of criteria an evaluator should consider when either constructing or selecting an evaluation instrument:

1. Classroom atmosphere—a "climate" conducive to student ease, where students feel they have the respect of their instructor and classmates, where they are challenged by their work, where they are confident they can succeed, and where they experience gratifying success.
2. Instructor—a person who is tolerant, reasonable, approachable, who possesses mastery of field and understanding interest and enthusiasm for the subject, who is thoroughly prepared for each class, and who conducts each class efficiently without annoyances or mannerisms which divert attention.
3. Course—one which has clearly defined objectives and standards which must be attained, which utilizes methods and material adapted to specific needs of the student but allows for individual differences, in which there is student participation, reviews at regular intervals, fair tests returned promptly, in which the interrelatedness of knowledge and relation to daily life are stressed, and in which students are apprised periodically of the quality of the progress.

Not all of these criteria necessarily apply to all methods of evaluation; the evaluator must select the criteria most appropriate for his particular purposes.

Evaluation by Students

Despite the fact that instructors sometimes deny the reliability and value of student ratings, this method is receiving increased attention. One source (ED 022 450) notes that student evaluations, when carefully and properly handled, provide the best criterion of quality of instruction. Research conducted by Rayder (ED 021 527) demonstrates that student ratings of instructors are not substantially related to the student's sex, age, grade point average, or grade(s) previously received from the instructor being rated. Moreover, students, unlike administrators or even teaching colleagues, have the opportunity to view the instructor in his day-to-day teaching activities and therefore should not be ignored as evaluators.

The most common method employed in student ratings is the opinionnaire. Several documents provide samples of student rating forms (ED 013 066, ED 014 959, ED 020 720, ED 021 527, ED 022 450, ED 023 405, and ED 028 775). Most require the student simply to rate his instructor on various attributes relevant to teaching ability; several, however, include open-ended questions or invite suggestions and comments.

The possible value of student evaluations is demonstrated in a study conducted at St. Johns River College (ED 013 066). The evaluation form required students to rate their instructors on a scale of one to five, on scholarship, skill of presentation, positive personal traits, and accuracy in evaluating students. Students were invited to supplement their ratings with written comments. A comparison of scores achieved by the full-time teaching faculty for the two years 1964-65 and 1965-66 yielded the following results:

1. Of the full-time instructors rated the first year, 14 did not return in the fall of 1965. Ten of these were in the lower half of the rating, thus reducing the spread of returning faculty by nearly one-third.
2. Fifteen instructors who rated in the lower half did return; all but one of these instructors improved on the next rating.

It was further reported that faculty members who made significant improvement had taken the students' ratings seriously, particularly their written comments.

Instructor Self-Appraisal

An example of self-evaluation is presented by Anderson (ED 013 634). Each instructor rated himself on a 7-point scale for the following attributes: speaking voice; mannerisms or pleonasms; knowledge of subject matter; personal enthusiasm; enthusiasm engendered in students; digressions; handling of questions; and general atmosphere created in the classroom. The instructor then made audio-tapes of two 1-hour class periods. After listening to the tapes, he completed another rating sheet and compared the two ratings. Although no statistically significant differences were found between the "before" and "after" ratings, more than half the faculty appeared sensitive to the information obtained from the tapes. Of the 19 instructors involved, five rated themselves more favorably the second time, six rated themselves less favorably, and eight did not change their ratings. The instructors concluded that the exercise was of value to them. Anderson lists the advantages of this technique as follows:

1. evidencing interest in the teaching process itself by the administration,
2. indicating confidence by the administration in the faculty's ability to evaluate themselves as professionals and make self-indicated improvements,
3. giving the faculty a workable and frequently interesting method whereby they may improve themselves,
4. preservation of anonymity by faculty, thus forestalling feelings of "big brother" watching,
5. establishing essentially a self-operating and perpetuating system not calling for a great amount of time,
6. placing of the dean in the position of being called in for aid by a motivated faculty member, rather than being looked upon as an instructor with unwanted advice, and
7. providing specific and concrete examples (preserved on tape) of problems which can be referred to on replay, without having to rely on notes or faulty memory.

This technique, with additional experimentation (preferably using video-tape), could be a valuable tool in producing increasingly better instructors.

Evaluation by Objectives

In their monograph, "Measuring Faculty Performance" (ED 031 222) Cohen and Brawer present a comprehensive treatment of the objectives, techniques, and concomitant problems of faculty evaluation. They contend that, although evaluation is often stated to be for the purpose of improving instruction, the methods seldom relate to instructional practices and even less to the results of instruction. They propose that evaluation would be more meaningful if it were related to instruction as a discipline rather than to the person of the instructor. If the instructor is to be observed as one force in the learning environment, methods other than those now typical must be employed. More important, the effects of the instructional process must be included in the evaluation design. They suggest that student achievement of learning objectives is the main criterion on which studies of faculty and of instructional effect should be based. The use of student gain on short-range objectives as a measure of teacher effectiveness is generally acknowledged as being more valid than the use of such criteria as, for example, the teacher's effort expended or the various perceptions of observers.

One scheme for evaluating instructors by student attainment is proposed by Israel (ED 029 625). This technique is based on the premise that the ends of instruction must be agreed on before evaluation procedures can be established and teacher effectiveness assessed. The essence of this technique is the development of a carefully selected set of objectives for the student to accomplish and an assessment of the skills, attitudes, and uses of knowledge exhibited by the teacher. The objectives should be developed cooperatively by the teacher and the administrator, for a necessary factor is mutual agreement on what would be accepted as evidence of student attainment of the specified objectives. One distinct advantage of this technique is that, in addition to providing a framework for evaluating instruction, it facilitates instruction; when there are clear statements of objectives, learning is more effective and objectives are attained more readily.

Three alternative methods for implementing this technique are provided by the author. The first calls for the instructor and administrator jointly to determine objectives, to establish criteria for judging attainment of these objectives, and subsequently to evaluate how well students achieved the objectives. If the objectives were not met, necessary modifications to the original objectives could be made and the teaching techniques of the instructor could be altered. The second alternative is similar to the first except that it calls for a classroom visitation by the administrator, thus providing more frequent and rapid feedback to the instructor. The third alternative differs from the second in that it calls for pre- and post-tests to be administered to the students for the purpose of measuring the attainment of objectives. One advantage of the last alternative is that it assures the same type of evaluation for all instructors.

Cohen and Brawer (ED 031 222) note that faculty evaluation may eventually prove effective in promoting the development of instructional specialists. Currently, a junior college instructor must be competent in all aspects of the instructional process. Through instructor specialization, an institution may be staffed by a core of people who collectively, but not necessarily individually, display excellence in all matters relating to teaching. Instructional specialization suggests team teaching, a practice becoming widespread among institutions at all levels of education. Team members who do not function effectively hinder their immediate colleagues, who can apply necessary sanctions to force them to change or to eliminate them from the team. Evaluation then becomes a process by which colleagues influence each other's activities and eventually it becomes an integral part of the instructional development of the college.

Summary

Junior colleges, emphasizing the teaching function, must provide their students with the most effective instructors and teaching methods possible. Therefore instructor evaluation must be an integral part of the overall developmental plan of the college.

Presented in this review are three different approaches to instructor evaluation: student evaluation by opinionnaire, instructor self-appraisal, and team evaluation involving both the instructor and his administrator. While the first two techniques have demonstrated merit as means of improving instruction, the last, based on student attainment of learning objectives, is more directly relevant to the purpose of evaluation. It appears that the benefits to be derived from this approach more than compensate for the time and energy required to implement it.

The ERIC Clearinghouse for Junior Colleges welcomes reports of additional studies relating to instruction evaluation techniques.

Marcia Boyer

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The *Junior College Research Review* is published ten times per academic year. Subscriptions are available at $2.00 each from AAJC, One Dupont Circle, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20036. Published and copyrighted by AAJC. Copyright is claimed until January 1975.

ERIC CLEARINGHOUSE FOR JUNIOR COLLEGES

ARTHUR M. COHEN, *Principal Investigator and Director*

The Clearinghouse operates under contract with the U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Office of Education.

JUNIOR COLLEGE RESEARCH REVIEW
Dale Gaddy, Editor
ERIC Clearinghouse for Junior Colleges
Room 96, Powell Library
University of California
Los Angeles, California 90024

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One Dupont Circle, N.W.
Washington, D.C. 20036

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ED 063925

Volume 4, Number 6

JUNIOR COLLEGE RESEARCH REVIEW

February 1970

Published by the American Association of Junior Colleges

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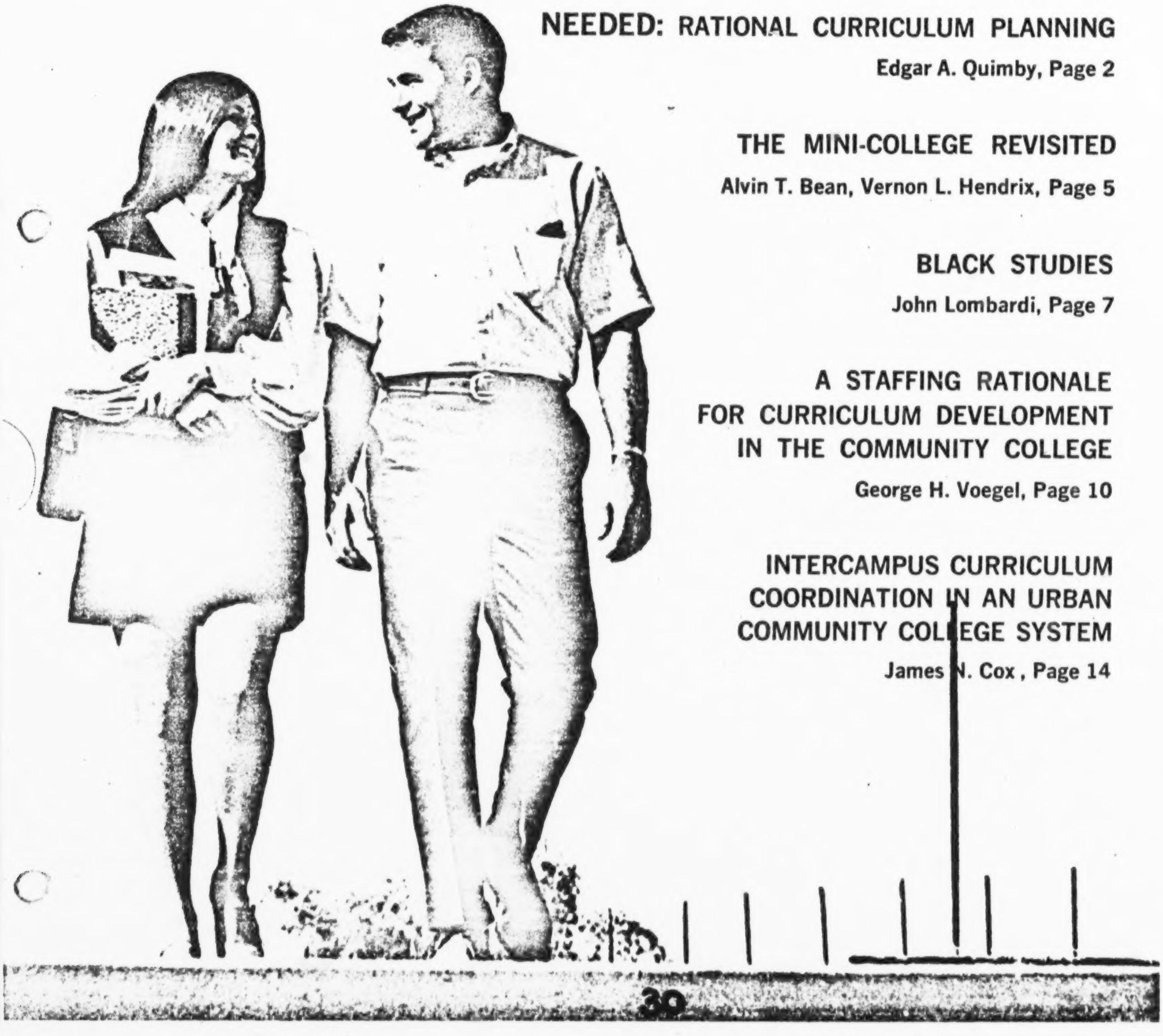

NEEDED:
RATIONAL CURRICULUM PLANNING

Edgar A. Quimby

Institute for Development of
Educational Activities, Inc.
(California)

Rational curriculum planning involves the specification of discrete types of curricular decisions and the ordering of these decisions into a hierarchy of logical relationships. The value of this approach rests in promoting the widest possible understanding of "who makes what decisions" among all members of the collegiate setting. Concomitantly, it provides a means for evaluating the effects of these decisions in terms of institutional purpose and student learning. An understanding of the calculus of curricular decision-making is certainly needed in two-year colleges—as it is in most schooling. The need for evaluating educational programs in junior colleges has become a truism of the field.

Junior colleges interested in rational curriculum planning will have to develop most of their own tools, because there is precious little writing on junior college curriculum planning in the literature. In fact, the latest substantive discussion of curricular issues in the two-year college, B. Lamar Johnson's *General Education in Action* [7], is now nearly twenty years old. However regrettable the lack of curricular development tools may be, it is understandable for two important reasons. On the one hand, ever-increasing attention has been devoted in recent years to an apparently widely recognized need for improving instruction in two-year colleges, and many of the most thought-provoking writings in the past decade have been concerned with innovative programs and improved instructional practices. On the other hand, curriculum planning at all levels of American schooling has been hampered generally by what two scholars have called the "dust bowl" empiricism [4] and the "meta-metatheoretical" nonsense [11] of contemporary curriculum inquiry.

This essay advances one notion of rational curriculum planning that can be helpful in dealing with problems of curriculum development, but a caveat or two is in order. It is argued here, in contrast to the premise of Clyde Blocker and his associates [1:202], that there is a fairly clear-cut distinction between curriculum and instruction. (Indeed, without that distinction, fruitful curriculum planning will not likely materialize.) Secondly, the focus here is on the "classical" approach to curriculum, which is concerned with *ends*, rather than with what Donald Meyers labels the computerist approach, which is concerned with *means* [9]. The defined outcomes model developed by Arthur Cohen [3:181-205], for example, illustrates the number of computerist designs available to curriculum planners.

Pursuing rational curriculum planning in the classical mode, with attention directed to ends rather than means, is important since it serves to narrow the ever-present gap between the image and the practice of schooling. Only by systematic efforts to bridge the gap between the ideal-laden images of the two-year college and the actual practice of junior college schooling will the field be able to address itself squarely to the long-standing identity crisis of the community junior college, to the more recent issues of irrelevant curriculums, and to the intemperate criticisms of the two-year curriculum by such worthies as Christopher Jencks and David Riesman [6].

A key to rational curriculum is rigor in the definition of terms and clarity in the construction of concepts. The following is the framework of base-line definitions and concepts, rooted in the scholarship of John I. Goodlad and the classical curriculum theorists. The framework suggests a language whereby practitioners may at least communicate ideas about curriculum.

A definition of *curriculum* appropriate for rational planning is not easy to come by. Contemporary usage of the term, for example, emphasizes descriptively what schools and colleges offer students in the form of subject matter courses, activities, and the great catchall—experiences. Not only does this notion that courses, activities, and experiences constitute a curriculum lack the necessary precision required for thoughtful planning, but moreover, it is confusing. Opportunities can be designed for students to experience learning, but the experience itself cannot be planned. Although courses and activities are opportunities for students to learn, still such a curriculum does not, perforce, specify the ends toward which student learning is directed. Witness the amount of student criticism of today's curriculums that highlights the absence of clearly established ends in curricular and extra-curricular activities [12].

Curriculum Defined

Goodlad has argued that curriculum should be defined as a "set of intended learnings" [5:13-14]; that is, statements of ends toward which student learning is to be directed and by which institutional purposes may be evaluated. This definition of curriculum is fully compatible with rational planning. In fact, without it, the idea of rational curriculum planning lacks special signficance. Moreover, the notion that curriculum is a set of intended learnings brings clarity to "defined outcomes" in the classroom and "systems approaches" in a program of study, two instructional planning designs that have been implemented to some extent in several junior colleges.

Given the definition of curriculum as a set of intended learnings, what are the categories of curricular decisions necessary for rational planning? Four are suggested here: educational aims, educational objectives, learning opportunities, and instructional objectives. Undeniably, these terms and the definitions outlined below will be familiar. Eschewing arcane educational jargon will surely foster more quickly an intelligent dialogue among practitioners!

Educational Aims

Educational aims are the broad purposes for schooling, the remote ends for the guidance of schooling activity. Goodlad observes that:

> The selection of educational aims involves, first, selection from among values [extant in society, the disciplines of knowledge, etc.]; second, derivation of ends [from the values selected] which can be achieved through education; and third, choices of those aims deemed most relevant to the specialized interests of the institution involved [5:43].

Selecting ends that can be attained through schooling and adopting the most relevant for a particular two-year college are processes influenced to some degree by legislative enactments and the purposes of other institutions. Yet the precise character of a college's educational aim is determined within a college. Stated aims may be general educational, disciplinary, vocational-technical, etc. An example of one commonly stated aim of general education for junior college students is "exercising the privileges and responsibilities of democratic citizenship" with increasing competence. A disciplinary aim might deal with the scope of knowledge needed by students to succeed at the baccalaureate level in one of the disciplines of knowledge. Vocational-technical aims typically focus on the employment students will be able to get after pursuing a program of study in a two-year college.

Educational Objectives

Goodlad defines an educational objective as a "statement of what students are to know, be able to do, prefer or believe as a consequence of being in the [school] program" [5:17]. These objectives may be, in part, variables independent of any particular group of students. The establishment of educational objectives as independent variables in professional and technical training programs is customary in many two-year colleges. For example, the educational objective of being able to type 60 words per minute without error is one such independent variable. Students achieve that level of competency or fail to attain the objective. Other educational objectives may be cast in the form of dependent variables, whereby student attainment of an objective is geared to individual talents and limitations. In contrast to the one objective in typing, there are many ways a student may attain educational objectives dealing with competence in democratic citizenship.

The distinction between an educational aim and an educational objective is not artificial. The attainment of the former is external to the institution, while the achievement of the latter is internal. For example, a two-year college might establish (as several have) aims stating that students completing a practical nursing program will pass a state certification examination or be employed as practical nurses. An education objective subsumed by that program would surely involve ability to perform particular kinds of nursing skills. Note that though knowledge of skills is under the control of a college's nurses training staff, the college can neither vouchsafe that every student nurse will pass the certification test nor guarantee that she will be employed as a practical nurse when she graduates from the program. Certainly if an appreciable number of graduating students in nursing did not pass the test or did not find or elect employment as nurses, the aims or educational objectives of the program would need to be examined.

Learning Opportunities

A learning opportunity is a situation created within schooling that identifies the general character of what students will be expected to do in seeking to attain educational ends. This may be a course or a program of study, but it might also be a series of what are commonly considered extra-curricular activities such as lectures, concerts, etc. Learning opportunities are by far the most readily understandable curricular offering. Indeed, most two-year college curricular decision-making is perceived only in terms of learning opportunities, and what the nature of collegiate learning opportunities should be commands the attention of literally scores of scholars and publicists every year. Still the learning opportunity is but one of four curricular decisions.

Instructional Objectives

Cohen defines an instructional objective as "a specific, observable student action or product of student action." He further points out that, to satisfy the definition of an instructional objective, "it must first specify something the student is to do, second, state the circumstances under which he will do it, and third, note the degree of accuracy with which he will perform the action" [2]. These are task-oriented objectives in that they ask students to write, to describe, to solve, to compare and contrast, etc. Unlike the educational objective that anticipates desired terminal behaviors, this instructional objective spells out what students are to do in quest of an educational end. Those familiar with Robert Mager's highly readable "cookbook" for *Preparing Instructional Objectives* [8] understand the function of these objectives.

Fashioning an instructional objective is not fully a curricular decision. From Cohen's perspective, the instructional objective is essentially an instructional concept since the specification of tasks and the conditions of learning are instructional, not curricular, activities [3:167]. Possibly the instructional objective (even if it is not framed in so-called behavioral terms) is best conceptualized as the tie-in between the range of curricular decisions defined above and a comparable range of instructional decisions that deal with organizing centers, learning theory, and so forth.

Much confusion exists in the development and evaluation of curriculums because educational aims and objectives are considered synonymous, thereby mixing intended learnings that can be evaluated only external to the college with those that can be assessed before students leave the campus. More confusion results from the determination of learning opportunities *before* educational objectives have been established. And the greatest confusion comes from extracting instructional objectives willy-nilly from the subject matter of learning opportunities. Therefore ordering the categories of curriculur decisions into a logical operational scheme for decision-making is at the heart of rational curriculum planning.

Goodlad feels that rational curriculum planning is based on the assignment of curricular decisions to three "levels" of decision-making in schooling, according to their organizational remoteness from students [5:24-39]. Closest to the student is the instructional level, where the teacher operates. Further removed from the student is the institutional level, at which the "total" faculty and the administration—or possibly a curriculum committee—function. Even further removed is the societal level, which includes a governing board and a number of other legal and extra-legal controlling agencies (e.g., the legislature, Congress, state board of education; other colleges and universities, accrediting agencies, and professional and academic associations.) Goodlad assigns the determination of educational aims to the societal level, educational objectives and learning opportunities to the institutional level, and instructional objectives to the instructional level. The pertinence of Goodlad's organizational "levels" concept to the two-year college has yet to be systematically examined, though one paper formulates some hypotheses about the "irrationality" of junior college curricular decision-making with respect to this paradigm [10].

However, Goodlad's assignment of curricular decision-making to organizational levels in schooling is probably not nearly as significant in rational curriculum planning in junior colleges as is the concept of ordering curricular decisions according to the remoteness of the decision from students. (After all, the determination of educational aims by a teacher or a team of teachers may be "rational" in two-year colleges.) It seems logical to link together the ends toward which student learning is directed and institutional purposes achieved in a chain of decisions from the general to the most specific. The task of making these decisions might be assigned to curriculum committees, departments of instruction, individual teachers, or any combination of these units.

The way out of confusion in curriculum development is for curriculum decision-makers first to decide on education aims, then to translate these aims into a spectrum of educational objectives. Proper translation will require attention to comprehensiveness (are all the aims being defined?) and to internal consistency (are all the objectives consonant with one another?). These are the first steps in the logical derivation of intended learnings and in the bringing of a curriculum within the reach of students. It must be kept in mind, however, that the ends of junior college schooling that cannot be assessed on the campus should not be mixed with those that can be so evaluated.

The next task is to identify learning opportunities. Ideally, these would be constructed out of one or more educational objectives, but, as courses of instruction and programs of extra-curricular activities already exist, they would have to be revised—where necessary—to conform with stated aims and educational objectives previously agreed upon. This is not as difficult as it seems at first; learning opportunities in technical-vocational programs for the most part are developed in this manner, as can those in the arts and sciences. One way to evaluate the general educational thrust of courses in the arts or sciences is to ferret out educational objectives from general education aims to learn if these objectives really get at the aims instead of at disciplinary knowledge and skills.

The curriculum decisions closest to the student are the instructional objectives. Though they need not be, these are customarily derived from the subject matter of learning opportunities. The rationality of an ends-oriented curriculum is preserved if instructional objectives are derived from the more remote educational objectives. Besides, the salience of educational aims and objectives will likely become manifest if the students can visualize those ends in terms of the instructional objectives immediately before them. But where does subject matter fit into a curriculum of intended learnings that reaches from today's instruction objective to some perceptible future end? Subject matter is a means for reaching that end, not an end in itself. As with the determination of instructional objectives, the choice and use of subject matter is more often an instructional than a curricular decision.

Rational curriculum planning is concerned with ends—the achievement of intended learning and the attainment of institutional purposes. This by no means suggests that attention to improved instructional means and innovative practices is inappropriate. Innovation is relevant if it seems to enhance the prospects of attaining intended learnings and fulfilling institutional purposes. The adoption of an innovation on ideological grounds, without any clear end that can be evaluated, is neither an appropriate procedure nor a rational practice.

Rational curriculum planning is equally concerned with institutional self-study. The derivation of ends, from broadly stated educational aims to the specification of instructional objectives, is a provocative evaluative process. Any two-year college seeking to plan its curriculum as a set of intended learnings along the lines suggested here would be providing the field with an invaluable case study in reconciling the image with the practice of junior college schooling. For the quest of rational curriculums promotes a dialogue on ends within the entire college community and prefaces a continuing conversation about institutional purposes. It is out of this dialogue that the institutional identities of two-year colleges will emerge.

Rational curriculum planning will help reconcile the practice with the image of junior college schooling. It will yield information about curriculum in the two-year college that not only provides data useful to decision-makers in classrooms, administrative offices, and curriculum committees, but also broaden our understanding of the two-year college. Without rational curriculum planning, there will be no dialogue on one of the "real" issues in the field, practitioners will continue plowing their respective educational furrows in mutual isolation, and the gap between image and practice will be neither adequately understood nor appreciably narrowed.

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THE MINI-COLLEGE REVISITED

Alvin T. Bean
El Centro College (Texas)

Vernon L. Hendrix
University of Minnesota

Rational curriculum formulation and development require a systematic flow of data regarding program outcomes. Frequently, however, junior college "experimental" programs are introduced and abandoned with no attempt made to assess their effects. This paper presents the results of a study that *did* assess a new program.

An earlier report [ED 029 640] of a pilot project at El Centro College (Texas), indicated that a composite of instructional procedures, involving large lecture sessions, seminars, reduced class time, programmed instruction, and student "task teams," resulted in decreased student attrition and greater achievement. Further experimentation with more rigorous statistical evaluation procedures is reported below [1]. Standardized tests employed in this study permit an examination of academic achievement in specific areas (English and history), attitudes toward the subjects, and critical thinking ability.

The subjects were college students enrolled in first semester English composition and American history courses during the fall semester of 1968-69. Students who had elected to take concurrently both their English 101 and History 101 courses in the Special Program in Curricular Experimentation schedule pattern comprised the experimental group. The same students were in both the Special Program English and the Special Program history.

Five regularly scheduled sections of English 101, chosen randomly outside the jurisdiction of the investigator, comprised the English control group. Five regularly scheduled sections of History 101, also chosen randomly, comprised the history control group. Control classes met in the enrollment pattern of 25-40 students three hours per week. Students in the experimental group were enrolled in *both* English composition and American history in the Special Program in Curricular Experimentation.

The experimental treatment was a composite of procedures used only with the Special Program English and history students and had certain recognizable characteristics. The formal schedule of the experimental classes provided for two hours of class time instead of the conventional three. A planned program of library research, films, slides, and tape for use outside of class was developed and implemented for the experimental group only. Study guides were provided for student use.

The formal schedule of the experimental group had two parts. One was the general assembly. Each general assembly was one hour in length, and all students enrolled in the Special Program sections were required to attend. This time was used for lectures and examinations. The other part of the schedule was a one-hour seminar each week in English and another in history. These were limited to 15 students and were scheduled by computer so that each group of students remained together for all seminars. A planned tutorial program replaced the traditional third hour. The teacher assigned instructional meetings or activities as necessary and helpful for each student's progress. Often the student studied independently and at his own rate.

Six teachers were involved; all had similar professional credentials. An English teacher and a history teacher worked with the experimental groups. The control groups were taught by two history teachers and two English teachers.

Both experimental and control classes followed the college's course of study for English 101 and History 101 and used the same textbooks. The importance of their roles in the experiment was discussed with all experimental and control classes during the testing periods and visits by the investigator.

The investigator worked with all experimental and control teachers to identify more clearly the expected outcomes of the courses. Teachers of both groups also worked with the investigator in pre-semester meetings and periodically during the experiment to coordinate comparable methodological approaches and procedures.

Alternate forms of four tests were administered before and after the experimental treatment: forms E and F of the 1965 revision of the *Crary American History Test,* forms 1A and 1B of the *Cooperative English Expression Test,* forms YM and ZM of the *Watson-Glaser Critical Thinking Appraisal,* and forms A and B of the *Purdue Master Attitude Scale, Part A, Attitude Toward Any Subject.*

Data were collected within the first 14 and the final 14 class days of the semester. *The American College Testing Program* battery was administered to entering students as a part of the enrollment procedure of the college. These scores and pretest scores of the criteria instruments were used as covariates.

Students who had failed the equivalent of English 101 or History 101, students over 30 years of age, and students concurrently enrolled in the Audio-Tutorial Biology courses of the college were not included in the analyses.

All hypotheses were restated in null form for testing with the equivalent of a one-way (single classification) analysis of variance design for two groups. The level .05 of significance was selected for rejecting the null hypotheses. A multiple-linear regression computer program was used with a Model 40 IBM 360 computer in the Dallas County Junior College District Data Processing Center.

The following is a summary of findings:

1. The mean gain made by the experimental group was not significantly greater than the mean gain of the control group on the *Crary American History Test,* the *Cooperative English Expression Test,* and the *Purdue Attitude Scale* for English. Significant mean gains were made by the experimental group on the *Watson-Glaser Critical Thinking Appraisal* and the *Purdue Attitude Scale* for history.

2. With sex held constant, statistically, the mean gain made by the experimental group was not significantly greater than the mean gain of the control group on the *Crary American History Test,* the *Cooperative English Expression Test,* and the *Purdue Attitude Scale* for English. Significant mean gains were made by the experimental group on the *Watson-Glaser Critical Thinking Appraisal* and the *Purdue Attitude Scale* for history.

3. With sex and ACT English score held constant, statistically, the mean gain made by the experimental group was not significantly greater than the control group on three of the four measures. Significant mean gains were made by the experimental group on the *Watson-Glaser Critical Thinking Appraisal.*

4. With sex and ACT mathematics score held constant, statistically, the mean gain made by the experimental group was not significantly greater than the control group on three of the four measures. The measure showing significant gains by the experimental group was the *Watson-Glaser Critical*

Thinking Appraisal.

5. With sex and ACT social studies score held constant, statistically, the mean gain made by the experimental group was not significantly greater than the mean gain of the control group on three of the four measures. Significant mean gains were made on the *Watson-Glaser Critical Thinking Appraisal* by the experimental group.

6. With sex and ACT natural science score held constant, statistically, the mean gain made by the experimental group on three of the four measures was not significantly greater than the control group. Gains on the *Watson-Glaser Critical Thinking Appraisal* were significantly greater for the experimental group.

7. With sex and ACT composite score held constant, statistically, the mean gain made by the experimental group on three of the four measures was not significantly greater than the mean gain of the control group. On the *Watson-Glaser Critical Thinking Appraisal,* however, the experimental group made significant mean gains.

8. With sex and pretest score held constant, statistically, significantly greater mean gains were made by the experimental group on the *Watson-Glaser Critical Thinking Appraisal* subtest of *Evaluation of Arguments* as compared with the English control group. There were no significant differences in gains on the other three measures.

Within the limitations of this study, the following conclusions were made:

1. achievement in the factual content of a discipline is not significantly related to variations in instructional methodology,

2. attitude changes toward subjects vary from discipline to discipline although the same methods of instruction may be used,

3. the ability to think critically may be increased by the deliberate use of instructional procedures designed to achieve this goal.

Based on the conclusions of this study, the following inferences were drawn:

1. with the added evidence of this study, teachers may proceed to use the many methods and techniques at their command, with reduced concern for resulting content achievement differences,

2. the evidence of this study may contribute to a further awareness of the need to consider the appropriate relationship of method to subject matter when attitudinal goals are involved in planning,

3. the evidence of this study may encourage teachers to provide for deliberate manipulation of the instructional environment to directly stimulate growth in the processes of critical thinking.

The conclusions, implications, and limitations of this study suggest several recommendations for further research.

1. The present study should be replicated using other appropriate standardized instruments as they become available.

2. Research is needed on the appropriateness of various approaches to different subject matter. Studies are needed on the identification of significant factors, such as the discipline's degree of reference to personal problems, to bodies of facts, to acquisition of skills, and to the level of academic sophistication.

3. The differences of instructors as they relate to the competencies required should be further explored.

4. Information on the importance of differences in students is needed. Correlation studies are needed on age, degree of emotional and social maturity, personality factors, and scores on socio-personal attitude scales.

5. The relationship of the current social climate to the effectiveness of different instructional methods should be identified. Implications of questions regarding a society characterized by social and protest manifestations should be explored. Research should try to identify characteristics of instructional methods that correlate with characteristics of the society's values.

6. Additional research should be done on the long-run effects of the two treatments.

7. Research on the effects of different combinations of the methods of instruction described in this study should be conducted.

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BLACK STUDIES

John Lombardi
Assistant Superintendent Emeritus
Division of College & Adult Education
Los Angeles City Schools

As was true at San Francisco State College, junior college educators, in introducing Black Studies courses to the curriculum, reacted (and are reacting) to a critical situation in a political manner, "in the most practical and urgent sense of that term" [5]. In a majority of junior colleges, Black Studies courses were introduced under duress, "in an atmosphere of controversey, disruption and violence" [10]. Occasionally, administrators and faculty developed courses before demands became insistent; others developed them to forestall the demands.

Although the drive for incorporating Black history and literature in the curriculum antedated the Black Power drive, neither history nor English teachers could be persuaded to modify their courses to incorporate changes in the direction sought by Blacks. They were indifferent to or were unable to comprehend the importance of broadening their courses to include material on the various racial and ethnic groups. They contended that, if they were to include Black material in all their courses, they would also have to include material on the Jewish, Irish, Italian, German and other ethnic groups who form American society.

By 1968, colleges began developing courses on various aspects of Black history and culture. In most instances, however, they were developed and taught by whites and incorporated in the regular departments. As the Black militants gained strength, these courses were rejected or revised and new courses were developed. In the larger colleges, the Black Studies courses were placed under a new department with a Black as head and usually with an all-Black faculty. Black student participation in the selection of instructors became common. In many classes, Black students forced white students to withdraw. The movement has progressed so far that Black activists will have no part of an eclectic approach. The separate-courses approach seems firmly established and not likely to be reversed soon.

The speed of development of Black Studies courses may be seen in a comparison of the catalog entries for 1968-69 and 1969-70 of a junior college that made more than a token effort to satisfy the aspirations of its Black students [13]. [Comparison of the catalogs of Cuyahoga Community College (Ohio), College of San Mateo (California), and the Chicago City Community College revealed the same patterns.] The 1968-69 catalog has one entry, "Afro-American Studies Curriculum," while the 1969-70 has four entries: "Afro-American Studies" subdivided into "Courses," "Curriculum," "Department."

In the 1968 catalog, a two-semester "History of the Afro-American" and a one-semester "History of Africa" appeared under History; a third, "The Negro in Contemporary Urban Society," under Humanities; a fourth, "The Afro-American in Contemporary Urban Society," under Social Science; and a fifth, "Contemporary Urban Problems and the Minorities," under Sociology. Another that could be considered in this category is "Contemporary Social Forces" in Sociology. An anthropology course, "The Peoples and Cultures of Africa," offered in the spring semester, did not appear in the 1968 catalog but is in the 1969 catalog under Afro-American Studies.

By September 1969, an Afro-American Department had been created to study the Black experience in Africa and America through an interdisciplinary curriculum composed of courses in anthropology, literature, social sciences, language, and psychology. Specifically the department intends:

1. to deal with legitimate and urgent academic material that traditional curricula have not dealt with in the past,
2. to provide an opportunity to complete a two-year undergraduate major in Afro-American studies,
3. to provide a comprehensive examination of the Afro-American experience, and
4. to define and encourage a new consciousness of the Afro-American experience.

The chairman and all instructors in the department are Black. In the 1969 catalog, the term "Negro" does not appear; it has been replaced by "Black" or "Afro-American."

Nine courses are listed in the catalog under the new department, some new and some transferred from other departments. Of the nine in the Afro-American Department, four deal with Africa; "Peoples and Culture of Africa," "History of Africa," "Elementary Igbo," and "The Culture and Language of Igbo." Originally the Foreign Languages Department offered Swahili, but Black militants forced a change, claiming that Swahili, the traders' language, was a painful reminder of the slave trade. Five courses deal with the Afro-American: "Psychology of the Afro-American," "The Afro-American in Contemporary Society," "Afro-American Literature," and a two-semester sequence, "The Afro-American in the Political and Social History of the United States." The last course attracts the most students, probably because it meets the state and local requirement for graduation and is transferable. Some courses not listed under the Afro-American division can be considered as responses to the needs and aspirations of Black students. One is offered in the Psychology Department as "Human Relations in the Urban Society." Except that this course covers "the problems of all minorities," it does not differ significantly from "The Psychology of the Afro-American." Two others in this category, "Law and Minority Groups" and "Police Community Relations," are offered in Police Science. Although no Black music course appears in the catalog, the Music Department offered "Survey of Afro-American Folksong" in fall 1969. In art, a single course combining "The Arts of Africa, Oceania, and Ancient America" contrasts with one on the "History of Oriental Art." No concession to Black demands seems to have been made by the Theatre Arts Department, which had been a target of Black militants.

The Los Angeles City College experience parallels that of many large colleges in and near the urban centers. In most colleges with small Black enrollments, "Black Studies" consists of a course or two. Macomb County Community College (Michigan) has "The Black Experience in White America." Santa Barbara City College (California) planned, for September 1969, a two-semester history sequence in African civilization and a course in minorities in the American political system.

At the College of San Mateo (California), the faculty, in response to the Black student's demands, recommended that four more courses be added to the six already in the minority curriculum and that, if a minority studies division were to be formed, its chairman should be a minority member of the faculty [18]. (Eight courses are listed in the catalog for 1969-70, in contrast to one in 1968-69.) In the Chicago system, Kennedy-King College offered nine courses and Southeast Campus offered eight in September 1969. Both colleges have large Black student enrollments [9].

By contrast, the Black Student Union of El Camino College (California), with its enrollment of 250 Blacks, demanded 25 new courses in a Black Studies curriculum under "Black Psychology," "Ethnic Literature," "Black Art," "Music," "Dance," "Language," "Black Sociology," "Black Theatre and Drama," and "Economics." The demands contained the most extensive and specific list of courses that had appeared up to that time. Although the President rejected the list as unreasonable, he did point out that an Afro-American Advisory Studies Committee had six subcommittees working on the development of courses in: Afro-American Literature; Literature of American Ethnic Groups; Afro-American Music; Speech-Theatre; Speech; Physical Education; and Psychology. The inclusion of physical education represented a first in that area.

Neighboring Mt. San Antonio College (California) in spring 1969 had five courses: "History of the Afro-American," "History of Africa," "Survey of Afro-American Literature," "Sociology of Ethnic Relations," and "Minority Group Dynamics in American Government." Committees were working on other courses in psychology, sociology, art, and music [16].

Courses so patently propagandistic as San Francisco State College's "Miseducation of the Negro" and "Sociology of Black Oppression" did not appear in the junior college curriculums. However, Black militants did demand "meaningful and relevant curriculum for both white and [Black] students," that should include courses ". . . such as white racism and the black revolution" [17].

Rationale in Junior College

To some, perhaps most, Black junior college educators, the Black Studies courses introduced in the colleges are "an extension of the concept of liberal education" and an attempt to redress the balance caused by the failure of liberal education "to meet the needs of the minority students." Through Black Studies courses, Black students expect to achieve insights into "identity problems, ego strengthening, awakening of self-esteem, reassurance of human dignity, and development of group pride" [19, 20].

A similar rationale appeared in a flier announcing an Afro-American Studies Program at Merritt College (California). Under the heading "Afro-American Studies and Black Consciousness," the "essence of Black Consciousness" was stated as:

> . . . the redefinition of Afro-Americans by themselves in order to develop a healthy psychological identity to which other ethnic groups may relate in a positive, dignified, humanistic, manner. Education as an instrument for transforming culture and developing individuals will play a vital role in preserving the fruits of the Black liberation struggle—dignity, self-respect, and self-determination for *all* human beings.

White educators also defend the Black Studies courses because of their "potential for giving new meaning and relevance to the lives of black and white students" [10]. The President of Fresno City College (California), in response to the "Black Students' Union Demands" of May 12, 1969, repeated an earlier statement he made to minority students: ". . . much more can and must be done by Fresno City College to make the College experience more relevant to the needs of these students. . . . The demands reflect . . . a deep concern for the goals of self-assertion, self-direction, and self-determination, all of which characterize the free man and reaffirm his indivdual dignity and worth."

In general, junior college administrators reasoned that "the existing programs of study fail to meet the needs of Black . . . students" and, more cogently, that a college "committed to serving the educational needs of all of its students" could not ignore this important phase of Black student aspirations [17].

Educators, while conciliatory in their responses, did not accept the premises of the Black student extremists. The senate of El Camino College (California), in its response to Black student demands, concluded "that the Black studies program must be placed in the perspective of the overall program of the college." While acknowledging its value to Blacks and Whites, the Senate warned against training a large number of students "in such a relatively narrow field." Senate members preferred "to aid in turning out not only Black artists, writers, and musicians but also Black (and White) chemists, accountants, linguists, historians, welders, mathematicians," in order to "serve the cause of education with dignity, balance, and professional excellence" [3].

Although he welcomed the positive benefit of an occasion requiring a re-examination of his basic assumptions, the president of Macomb County Community College (Michigan) declared:

> It is crucial that we exercise our judgment in a dispassionate fashion, reaching our conclusions on the basis of what will serve the best interests of our institution. Unless compelling reason dictates, we are not justified in tampering with time-tested principles of academic procedures simply because an articulate, dedicated, and well-meaning group calls for change for the sake of change, rather than on merit [8].

Implications of Demands for Black Studies and Black Instructors

The issue of Black Studies is inseparably bound up with the issue of employment of Black instructors. On both issues, widespread agreement exists that courses in Black Studies should be introduced and that more Blacks should be employed. Beyond this, serious disagreement exists between the Black activists and the educators. It extends to the control of appointment and retention of staff; to the development, content, and purpose of the courses (including the texts to be used and the library books to be purchased); and to the admission of students. Educators insist that, since these are professional matters, students cannot be given a controlling responsibility in any of them. To capitulate will undermine academic freedom.

Public policy is opposed to segregation by Black or White. Recently the Department of Health, Education and Welfare ordered Antioch College (Ohio) to desegregate its Black dormitories and its Black Studies institute or lose its federal aid [14]. At the same time, HEW warned other colleges contemplating the establishment of autonomous Black departments that exclude white students and instructors that such action is in violation of Title VI of the 1964 Civil Rights Act.

Among the severest critics of the extremist position are some prominent Black educators. Professor W. Arthur Lewis of Princeton yields "to none in thinking that every respectable university should give courses on African life and on Afro-American life," but he hopes "that they will be attended mostly by white students." Black students must "reject any suggestion that black studies . . . be the major focus of their programs" [2]. Kenneth Clark of the City University of New York fears "that a separate Black program not academically equivalent to the college curriculum generally . . . reinforces the Negro's inability to compete with the whites for the real power of the real world" [12, 6:70].

The Black militants, supported by a small number of whites, brush aside these arguments, based on the traditional values of a white-oriented and white-dominated college setting. They demand Black-controlled Afro-American courses, curriculums, and departments in order to reverse the process that made "the Black man invisible, [denied] by omission or distortion, his contribution to the world's and America's history, [and] psychologically destroyed the minds of Black youth" [4, 11].

To resolve this issue, moderates propose a middle course as a bridge between the segregation now advocated and the ideal of integration that seems so remote. In this proposal, institutions will have racial and ethnic subdivisions, where students will study subjects in the humanities, arts, and social sciences—subjects in which the culture of the racial or ethnic groups will receive adequate treatment. In the "hard" subjects of technology, mathematics, and science, all students will study together. Such a plan may offer the opportunity for a "sensitive response to the desires of minorities to explore their own heritage, and will result more readily in eventual integration" [6:84].

A junior college professor, in an analysis of the dynamics of the ethnic studies, sees "two opposing trends: the one towards separatism because of psychological need; the other towards independent integration, the rational approach. . . ." He predicts that the solution will come as a reaction to the conflict between the separatists and the integrationists. This conflict will be reflected on the affective level in those areas common to all humanity: (1) the concept and realization of brotherhood, (2) the search for a meaning of existence, (3) the capacity for joy of living, and (4) the quality of the relationship between members of the ethnic group in the family, community, and national environment.

In each of these areas, the political point of view emphasizes ethnic separatism; determining one's own destiny and superiority, and achieving political action and structure. The non-political aspects concentrate on universal human experience, interdependent experience, uniqueness as opposed to superiority, and relationship of ethnic groups in a pluralistic society. The author postulates three stages in the evolutionary process: (1) sudden awareness, a traumatic experience; (2) employment of political means to achieve satisfactions revealed by the sudden awareness; and (3) the transition "from social satisfaction and political aspirations to the contemplation of the non-political aspects of a liberal education" [20].

Evaluation

Students enrolled in Black studies courses in reasonably large numbers, but fewer than the activists expected. In fact, the enrollment at one college was so disappointing that the militants asked that enrollment be compulsory for Black students. The editor of *Black Awareness* of Los Angeles Southwest College BSU (Black Students' Union) felt that "the students are not as interested in the studies as they should be. In my mind, they don't seem to understand the reason for studying themselves—about their own heritage. Actually they shouldn't need a reason! Yeah, they are saying, 'I'm Black and I'm Proud,' but it ends there—no willingness to learn it. Perhaps awareness is still yet to come!" [1].

In the eight Los Angeles junior colleges, 1231 students enrolled in one or more of 11 courses offered during the spring 1969 semester. The enrollment in the colleges was 86,000. At Merritt College, a higher percentage enrolled, with 956 taking one or more of the 15 courses offered in fall 1969. Merritt's student enrollment is approximately 10,000.

Another indication of the practical acumen of Black students may be deduced from the fact that at Los Angeles City College 301 students enrolled in the two courses, "The Afro-American in the Political and Social History of the United States" I and II, while only 239 enrolled in six other Black Studies courses. As mentioned above, the history courses satisfy state requirements and are transferable.

As a practical matter, Black militants and Black educators accept the fact that Black students have to make their way in an America that still places high value on the traditional education. A separatist nation or cultural pattern for Blacks is at best a dream, at worst a delusion. Without admitting any retreat from the separatist position, student militants and educators began advocating and initiating interdisciplinary programs for the associate in arts degree. At Merritt College, four major interdisciplinary patterns of Afro-American Studies enable a student to select (1) a general program with no specific concentration, or (2) one with a concentration in (a) Behavioral and/or Social Sciences, (b) Creative Arts, (c) Humanities and/or Language Arts. In July 1969, the Seattle BSU proposed several interdisciplinary programs similar to those at Merritt.

Listing courses in two or more departments attests to their importance and is a practical consideration. Students know that subject and unit requirements in a particular discipline determine acceptability for graduation, credentials, transfer, and majors. This accounts for listing, for example, "History of Africa" as History 27 and as Afro-American 6. This double entry, a practice of long standing, does not constitute a change.

It must be admitted that, with few exceptions, little real thinking has gone into the changes. Most colleges under pressure have hastily offered various courses in Afro-American studies that are, in essence, only traditional courses with an orientation toward Africa and Afro-American experiences. These are often combined into a curriculum and administered by a department or division.

Despite this empirical development, which was unavoidable under the circumstances, Black activists accomplished what many educators were unable to do by exhortation. As mentioned earlier, the Black activists have made significant gains in this regard. In addition to the Black Studies courses and curriculums, associate in arts degree programs in Afro-American studies are becoming common. Such programs have been instituted at Merritt College (California), which claims to a first in this, at Laney College (California), and at several junior colleges in Chicago, Los Angeles, and New York City. Transferability for these courses is also being granted by senior colleges and universities, many of which are also initiating majors and degree programs in Afro-American studies. [7].

Although Swahili and, now, Igbo have been introduced in some colleges, it is doubtful if either will replace any of the standard occidental or oriental languages. Black students are no more adept at learning a foreign language than white students.

If the addition to the junior college curriculum of Afro-American courses in history, literature, language, and humanities survives, this will rank with the student bill of rights and the demise of *in loco parentis* as the most far-reaching result of the current student activism movement. These courses constitute a more extensive addition to the curriculum than any introduced during the entire history of the junior college movement.

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A STAFFING RATIONALE FOR CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT IN THE COMMUNITY COLLEGE

George H. Voegel

William Rainey Harper College (Illinois)

In his book, *Realms of Meaning*, Dr. Phillip Phenix [3] indicated two major temptations in the revived interest in various curriculum patterns of knowledge. The first is to return to a traditional subject-matter curriculum related neither to the needs or abilities of the individual learner, nor to the social and psychological factors affecting education. The second is to construe knowledge too narrowly in purely intellectual terms, when analysis shows that the full development of human beings requires education in a variety of realms of meaning rather than in a single type of rationality. Phenix outlines these realms as follows:

Realms of Meaning	Disciplines
Symbolics	ordinary language, mathematics, non-discursive symbolic forms
Empirics	physical sciences, life sciences, psychology, social sciences
Esthetics	music, visual arts, arts of movement, literature
Synoetics	philosophy, psychology, literature, religion (in their existential aspects)
Ethics	the varied special areas of moral and ethical concern
Synoptics	history, religion, philosophy

Schwab [4], in a discourse on the structure of the disciplines, summarized the organizational problems as:

1. subject matter
2. practitioners
3. methods (syntax)
4. ends (kinds of knowledge or outcomes)

Auguste Comte's hierarchy has an important relationship to the past patterns of curriculum organization. This Comtian hierarchy of the sciences goes from mathematics to physics, to chemistry, to biology, and then to the social sciences.

Schwab claims that, because of its simplicity, this hierarchy of disciplines has been one of the most tyrannical and unexamined curriculum principles in our time, and has dictated at least 35 per cent of all the sequences of the sciences. A curriculum choice between the upward or downward version of the hierarchy cannot be made on subject-matter criteria alone, but instead the capacities of students, the ways that learning occurs, and the objectives must be looked at to make such a decision [4:18-21].

The current situation in most comprehensive community colleges suggests there is considerable dichotomy along the transfer versus career or vocational-technical curriculums, to say nothing of the gulf between such faculties. While a number of community colleges are developing an integrated approach, where the career programs are incorporated within the divisional structure, the faculty still lacks understanding of the various programs.

Typically, a two-year career program and transfer program might have most of the following elements:

	Career	Transfer
1st Semester	2 "major" courses English Comp. Social Sc. elective P.E. elective	2 "major" courses English Comp. Language P.E. elective
2nd Semester	3 "major" courses English Comp. Social Sc. elective P.E. elective	2 "major" courses English Comp. Language P.E. elective
3rd Semester	2-3 "major" courses Humanities elective P.E. elective	3 "major" courses Social Sc. Humanities P.E. elective
4th Semester	2-3 "major" courses 2 elective courses P.E. elective	3 "major" courses Humanities P.E. elective

On comparing these programs, one finds their similarity striking. Generally, six hours each of English, social science, and humanities, and eight hours of science and math are required for a degree fulfillment; when a student enrolls in such a program, his path of progress is fairly clear. The community college occupational or career programs are usually well organized and much publicized by appropriate brochures. From a staff organizational standpoint, little thought is given to ascribing a departmental status for such a program.

Within the transfer programs of the community colleges, with departments below the division organization level, the staff has difficulty trying to absorb, or to work with, the staff teaching those vocational courses. This problem occurred because the departments have structured themselves along the lines of the four-year colleges and the Comtian hierarchy.

In a comprehensive community college, the developmental program should serve both ends of the learning skills spectrum (speed reading as well as remedial reading, for example) and probably has, not a sequence, but rather a varying content drawn from a number of disciplines. A typical developmental program, while not "graduating" a student, might have the following components:

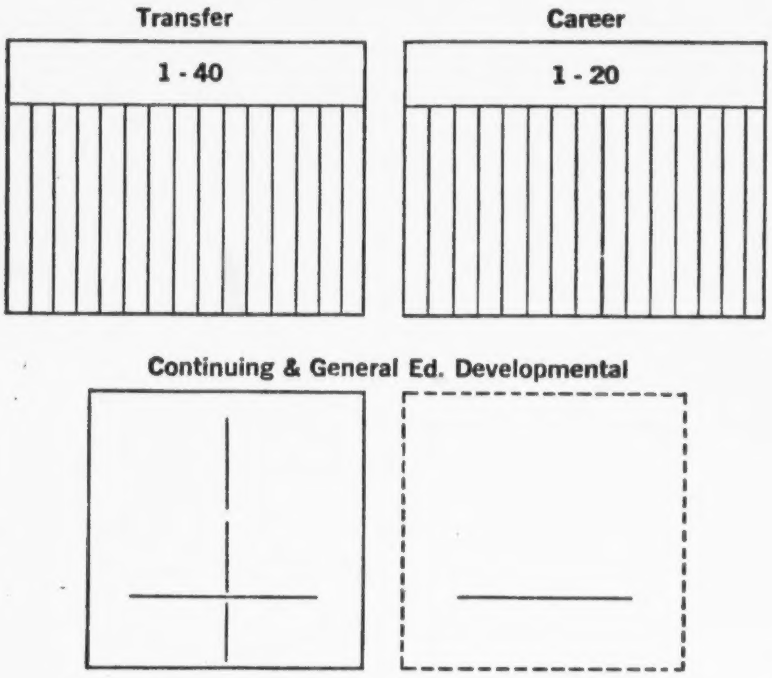
English — (Comp.)	90
English — (Reading)	95
Math —	95
Bio — (Natural Sc.)	99
Others — Speed Reading Honor Program or Courses (based on creativity)	90, 99

Other comprehensive community college commitments are in continuing education and in general education. While catalog definitions of general education vary, they usually express the theme of developing an individual as a useful, articulate citizen of our society. In discussing general education, Phenix [3:271] expressed his outlook on its role when he wrote:

> The curriculum of general education contains those provisions for learning that are necessary for the development of the person in his essential humanity. General education is contrasted with *specialized* education, which includes provisions for the development of particular competences for other purposes than the becoming of a person as a person.

General education may not graduate anyone either and, actually, the continuing education courses may be considered under a separate column.

Thus, lined up, these vertical *program** components of a community college might look like this:



When a division staff organization is oriented horizontally across the programs, a grid is formed. For example, the mathematics staff in the Science Division, teaches courses that apply to the transfer, career, and developmental programs and may offer a course in the evening for adult or general education.

		Transfer	Career	Dev.	Gen. Ed.
SCIENCE DIVISION	Math	Math 101	Tech Math 106	Math 99	Slide Rule (Math-?)
	Chem.				
	Bio., etc.				

Thus, the mathematics staff, along with other components in the Division, provide instructional support service to the various programs. A more generalized Curriculum Organization Grid model of this might be as follows:

		Transfer	Career	Dev.	Gen. Ed.
DIVISIONS	1. Sci.				
	2.				
	3.				
	4.				
	5.				

The staff structure is usually based on departments and aligned on the Comtian hierarchy, while the career or technical program staff organization is based on the particular *program* and its goals for the students. In a recent study of the undergraduate curriculum, Paul Dressel [1] perceived the nature of such problems when he stated that:

> A well-planned curriculum, of which an essential part is a statement of objectives and a rationale for the experiences provided, is a necessary structure in which instruction can be appropriately defined in relation to the learnings desired. If a faculty cannot or has not been able to agree on a comprehensive curricular design, good instruction will surely be fortuitous. It will also be individualistic in that it will be based on personality factors, and it will be isolated in that each "good" instructor becomes such by becoming a "character" rather than by becoming a contributor to a grand design.

Such a Curriculum Organization Grid (COG) model has a number of implications for the community colleges. First, the role of a *program coordinator** is to coordinate and supervise the instructional framework within which a student may attempt to reach an occupational (career) or cultural goal. His main responsibility is to ensure that the curriculum, as established in the catalog, is effectively meeting the needs and goals of students. Such a program coordinator should carry a partial teaching load depending on the size of the program staff and number of students and, in the transfer areas, he might supervise several programs. Another role is to organize cooperatively a program staff from the subject disciplines of the divisions. This would be an interdisciplinary approach, as appropriate teachers from almost every division would be supporting a given program.

Second, the use of such a Curriculum Organization Grid will reveal what might be called the "chaining effect" of basic or prerequisite courses, and has enormous implications for instructional planning. Such a course cannot be taught solely as though each student is going to be a major in that discipline. What needs to be answered is, what exact body of knowledge, attitudes (appreciations), and skills does any student, *regardless of his major*, have to "know" in such a course? In addition to this, what exact amount of knowledge, appreciations, and skills does a student, *because of his major*, have to "know" in such a course? At this point, the complex strategies and tactics of specifying *instructional objectives**, analyzing the learners, analyzing the learning tasks, sequencing these tasks, and validating the supporting instructional materials must be undertaken—little of which is currently being done anywhere! As a chaining effect, the chemistry courses listed in Harper College's 69-70 catalog look like this:

CHM 100 → 101 **Math 95 (or a C in H.S. algebra)**
(Intro)

CHM 110 CHM 121 → 122 → 210 → 211, 240 → 241
(Chem Tech) (Gen'l)

Math 103
↓
CHM 131 → 132 → 204 → 205
(College Chem)

(Arrows denote prerequisites)

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*As used here, *program* means a vehicle of instruction composed of a curriculum or series of courses for a period of time that will provide an instructional framework within which a student may attempt to reach an occupational or cultural goal.

*As used here, *program coordinator* connotes a faculty member who is responsible for leading, coordinating, and supervising personnel for the development of curriculum for certain program(s).

*As used here, *instructional objectives* denotes those statements originated by the instructors concerning anticipated student achievements within a course or portion thereof, which are expressed in such terminology as to make the evaluation of these achievements possible by these instructors and their *students*.

It can be seen that the chemistry courses and staff are servicing both the transfer programs and the career programs (CHM 110). The chaining effect is also evident in CHM 121-122 for six other courses, and in CHM 131 for two others.

If such a chaining of courses is "where the action is," a key person in this concept would be a *course coordinator*[*] whose main task is to oversee such basic courses as the CHM 121-122. Another function would be to insure that the appropriate instructional objectives, course sequencing, etc. are being planned, whether by himself or another staff member.

The course coordinator could also relate the learning resource needs to that particular course in a way not possible before. The materials, the development, production, or purchase costs, as well as their use could be proportionally accounted in direct support of each program. He is most effective with the basic courses, or those with multisections, as his tasks are first-line instructional responsibilities to ensure that the effective learning materials, techniques, and sequences are developed and organized for that particular course. The impact of emphasizing the staff and support relationships at this basic course level is that, if a student misses or fails to "understand" some of the basic concepts within such a course, then the potential of failure, dropping out, poor grades, or misunderstanding at the next course level has been increased drastically.

The program coordinator "manages" the curriculum and staff that comprise a particular program. He also articulates between the student services personnel, administration, division chairmen, and deans (transfer or vocational-technical) who then articulate with the state agencies, colleges, and other institutions. Once a curriculum has been set up and implemented, his function becomes one of maintenance.

The chart below outlines major distinctions between the program and course coordinators:

Program Coordinator
Functions

1. holds program staff meetings
2. coordinates matters relating to curriculum revisions
3. acts as liaison between course coordinators and upper administrative levels for articulation problems. Also assists extra-institutional articulation
4. if within a division line structure, assists the division chairman in selecting and hiring staff to service the program
5. performs other such functions as necessary to maintain the program's effectiveness
6. relays changes to the Curriculum or Academic Affairs Committee

Course Coordinator
Functions

1. organizes or supervises the development of course outlines, units, learning sequences, etc. Is prime evaluator of student achievement
2. coordinates the instruction in other sections of the same course to see that students get similar instruction
3. requests instructional support materials
4. attends program staff meetings when appropriate
5. suggests course content changes to program coordinator as they would affect his program
6. relates course changes to other courses in the chain
7. relays course method changes to Instruction Improvement Committee for evaluation and dissemination

From an administrative or budget standpoint, a college should put more emphasis on the support of the course coordinator than of the program coordinator. The rationale is that the program coordinator is maintaining the system and his major involvement is chairing meetings and articulating. The course coordinator, being at the focal point of instruction, bears a greater responsibility for the success of the students. There are several formulas to assist in calculating staff and budget for course coordinator functions. In Florida, for example, the colleges, if they so choose, could apply line 5 (5 per cent of the total instructional salaries for faculty and program development) of the "Minimum Foundation Program for Junior Colleges." Another formula[*] has fifteen steps. It considers the courses, enrollments, percentage per course, credits per course, mean class size, number of instructors and staff, etc. to arrive at a mean product. The method of teaching, the number and length of classes or labs per week, the nature of planning and development, and instructional administration all have a direct application to estimating course coordinator involvement in curriculum development if applied to the grid model.

The Curriculum Organization Grid model and the chaining effect schematic are not a cure-all of the staffing problems at the community colleges. The following grid uses are suggested:

1. for staff meetings—planning and discussion
2. organization of instructional staff for effective teaching
3. placing the emphasis on curriculum and instructional development rather than on "maintaining the system"
4. to permit each faculty member a "place in the sun" and relate his instructional activities and skills to the various programs offered by the college (differentiated teaching)
5. allowing judicious use of supporting staff and services based on the appropriate formula
6. providing for possible organization of staff with balanced functions and appropriate span of control; also for adjustments along staff and line functions
7. providing for expansion along divisional lines into a multicampus operation or along program lines to provide greater educational services to the community.

Such a grid arrangement allows new orientations and conditions to emerge within a college, and can assist those new comprehensive community colleges searching for a more all-encompassing expression of the framework within which they might function.

Much of what the grid and the staffing suggest allows for change and innovation by providing the pattern of local leadership, establishing communication channels, participation, flexibility, and patterns for continued use of the innovations. These would help reduce the problems of what McClelland [2] called "attitudes of reticence, suspicion, and fear" and the "management problems and funding problems." Likewise, it attempts to present alternative solutions to the organizational problems and temptations suggested by Schwab and Phenix. It is a breakthrough in the curriculum crust that has evolved from Comtian hierarchy, and uses the course coordinator as Dressel's "contributor of a grand design."

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[*] *Course Coordinator* is a faculty member who is responsible for leading, coordinating, and supervising personnel for the development of curriculum for a *specific subject* area or course.

[*] Referred to as the "McCabe Formula," since it was implemented by former President Robert McCabe at Essex College, Newark, New Jersey. A copy is appended to this article.

APPENDIX

"McCABE FORMULA"

DIRECTIONS FOR PREPARING STAFFING PROPOSAL

Column 1 Course	List all the courses you intend to teach during the Fall Term. The Fall Term is used because enrollment is at its peak then.
Column 2 Preceding Fall Term enrollment on which projections are based	List the enrollments in each course for the Fall Term of the preceding year. (Normally, the registrar will furnish this information.) If you plan to teach all sections using the same staffing arrangements, you should combine all enrollments for multiple section courses into one total. If you plan to vary the method of staffing, figure a mean product for each arrangement.
Column 3 This represented what percentage of the total college enrollment taking the course during that term	Your registrar should be able to determine for each course the percentage of the previous year's total college enrollment that particular course contributed. (To do this, divide Column 2 by the preceding Fall Term enrollment.)
Column 4 Projected enrollment	Take the total projected enrollment for the college and multiply that by Column 3.
Column 5 Credits per Enrollment	To complete this column, refer to the catalog and merely fill in the number of credits listed for the course.
Column 6 Total student semester hours	Multiply the number of students you anticipate will take the course (Column 4) by the credits per enrollment (Column 5).
Column 7 Method of Teaching (breakdown into lecture, lab., large group, small group, etc.)	Here you list the number of hours for each type of instruction used in teaching the course. Break this down according to the number of hours of lecture, lab, etc. If the course is taught using different size classes, (i.e. large lecture, small group) indicate this. One line should be entered for each grouping arrangement with an additional summary line for the total course.
Column 8 Clock Hours per week	The total number of clock hours per week is obtained by multiplying the projected enrollment for each course (Column 4) by the number of hours per week for each type of instruction used in teaching the course.
Column 9 Anticipated *mean* group size	The anticipated mean class size is normally established by the department.
Column 10 Number of Class or lab hours per week	The number of class (or lab) periods per week is determined by dividing the clock hours per week (Column 8) by the anticipated mean size of the class. Separate calculations for each portion of the course (i.e. lab, large lecture, small lecture, etc.) are required.
Column 11 Number of Instructors	To find the number of instructors required to teach a particular course, divide the number of classes (or labs) per week required for each method of instruction by the average teaching load of a faculty member (15 semester hours for lecture courses, 20 clock hours for activity and lab courses or whatever your load policy requires).
Column 12 Development	For some organizational arrangements time is required for planning and development. This is computed by equating this time released from instruction as a portion of an instructor.
Column 13 Administration	Released load for department chairmen or administration of a large enrollment course is recorded. Administration of a level above department chairman (Dean, Associate Dean, Division Director, etc.) is not charged to the instructional program in these computations.
Column 14 Staff Requirement	The total staff requirement for the course is the total of columns 11, 12, and 13.
Column 15 Mean Product	The mean product is the key to the entire formula. At Essex County College we operate on a 26.1 student teacher ratio, which converts into a mean product of 390. (Twenty-six students at 15 semester hours each equals 390 or one instructor). This is not to say that each course must have a mean product of at least 390, but that the average for the college must be 390. This means that we must balance small classes and released time with large lecture classes and other organizational patterns. To determine the mean product, take the semester hours for *each* course (Column 6) and divide this by the total number of staff needed for *that* course (as shown in Column 11). *Note:* To get an average mean product for a department, division, etc., take the total number of student semester hours produced (sum of Column 6) and divide by the total number of staff required (sum of Column 14). *Do not add the sum of Column 15 and divide by the number of entries.* Each mean product has a *weighted value.*
Total Number of instructional staff required	To determine the number of personnel needed for the instructional program, get the sum of column 14*.

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*If a department chairman is responsible for more than one course, enter a separate line at the end of the total department offering in order to list his released load for administration.

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INTERCAMPUS CURRICULUM COORDINATION IN AN URBAN COMMUNITY COLLEGE SYSTEM

James N. Cox
Los Angeles City College

Multicampus systems of community colleges face the same problem of curriculum administration everywhere: to preserve the birthright of human individuality within the framework of large-scale bureaucracy. For community colleges, this challenge has a somber ring. The multicampus role is seemingly alien to their traditional style of community orientation, although state and university control in a number of commonwealths might suggest otherwise. Junior colleges have, in fact, been in the vanguard of multicampus organization, but urbanization adds new dimensions to the meaning of community, historically an order of social organization close to the human heart. In the urban setting there is no end to community, for there is no end to the size of one's social world.

The problem is not merely one of organizational bigness, nor can it be solved by the simple expedient of a "states'-rights" kind of campus autonomy, as the Los Angeles Community Colleges have found out. The urban college must take an input of students from commuting surroundings and produce an output educated for residential and occupational destinations perhaps far away. If it fails to do this, it fails in its upgrading and democratizing mission. To the commuting environment, meanwhile, comes a steady stream of immigrants bringing their own cultural characteristics, remaking the urban milieu. Furthermore, minority militancy is laying stress on an ethnic identification that inevitably turns back on segregated communities within the urban complex. While suburbia loses its sense of community identity, the ethnic islands of the inner city clutch it to their breasts, in keeping with a long line of Americanization well known to Jews, Italians, Poles, and Irish, who were somehow also outside the mainstream of WASP-oriented integration. The concept of a melting pot is an overrated ideal.

This new scale of things implies something, not only about the development of relevant curricula, but also about their intercampus coordination, since community colleges are charged, as always, with operating on a basis of stringent economy. Scale also implies something about articulation with transfer institutions, which, for well-known reasons, may be laggard in response. Urbanization has no inherent connection with campus autonomy—nor, for that matter, with the accident of governance. In any urbanized area, there should be a rationale for the offering of expensive occupational training that cuts across campus and even district organization. In such a region, there should be machinery for the coordinated advisement of transfer students. While the number of students actually transferring from any one campus may be relatively few, their number in the whole urban region is large.

The Value of X

Urbanization brought about a metamorphosis in the Los Angeles Junior College District. City College had been one of the largest institutions of its kind for 16 years, when, in 1945, a second campus was founded. Five years later, the district had seven autonomous campuses, each free to respond to its own vaguely defined community. With the proliferation of institutions came a proliferation of courses, curricula, requirements, standards, policies, deadlines, and regulations. Although residents of the district could move freely from one campus system to another, they were harassed by inconsistencies. The instructional and administrative staffs were duplicating each other's efforts and mistakes, at some expense to the taxpayers of every cultural identification. Intersystem, horizontal communication was missing, while urbanization brought mobility and interdependence. Furthermore, both semiprofessional curricula and transfer institutions were proliferating, with a synergistic effect on requirements. The need for coordination was obvious. Within the Los Angeles Junior College District, the problem was how to achieve coordination, internally and externally, without undermining campus systems autonomous in things that really mattered. It was a problem that could be stated as an equation. If X coordination equals the value of uniformity minus the value of autonomy, find X [7].

By 1955 the deans of instruction were grappling with this problem. With the aid of department chairmen, subject matter specialists, and community-oriented advisory committees, they had reviewed all the courses offered in the district. They had classified courses under subject matter headings, devised cataloging principles, and assigned uniform course numbers, titles, and unit values. Circles of experience had been made to overlap, and the proper place of subsystems had been defined. The deans of instruction continue to sit as a council, with a coordinator, measuring new proposals against feedback from all sources. Course control is excellent. While the numbers of students and curricula have multiplied many times over, the number of courses offered has remained constant and could easily be coded for the teleprocessing of transcripts [4]. As executive secretary, the coordinator maintains a central office where he negotiates articulation agreements with the transfer institutions, issues equivalency bulletins, publishes an annual annotated district catalog of courses, makes annual reports, and does studies of current interest. In this way information flows to administrators, chairmen, counselors, instructors, and students. And as current interest in these documents lapses, they become a historical record [3]. The council is responsive to students, faculties, and communities, and when the coordinator speaks to transfer institutions, he speaks with some weight.

Even so, there is no force working to promote distinctive campus flavors. Perhaps this in inherent in urbanization. But to a system in dynamic equilibrium, true innovation comes only from an outside threat [8], as seen in the precipitous institution of ethnic studies. In California, such a threat arose in a 1968 legislative bill that was stopped only by the governor's veto. This bill would have created a number of vocational regions, each with a committee of three representatives from junior college districts, three from high school districts, one from the Department of Employment, and five from the public to speak for the industries of the area. Each regional vocational committee would have been empowered to make recommendations directly to the State Board of Education, to the Board of Governors of the California Community Colleges, and to "any other appropriate policy-making body" regarding "maximum coordination between vocational, technical, adult, and continuation education agencies within the region, together with recommendations for the implementation of" a five-year "master plan in the region" [10].

Shaping truly democratic methods for governing bigness is one of the crucial problems of our time. It is the old problem of the rights of the individual versus the rights of all. Traditionally, solutions have been sought in modes of representative government and modes of decentralizing toward local autonomy. Of course, finding the ultimate value of X is no simple problem, for, as in the case of white supremacy in the South, local autonomy can promote the worst kind of tyranny. There is a tendency to see bureaucracy as something imposed by boards, superboards, and legislatures, but, throughout, academic organization reflects Weberian rules (lockstep education), a hierarchy of authority (academic and administrative

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rank), expertise (disciplinary specialization), and impersonality (scholarly objectivity and faculty committees). It reflects privilege, tenure, seniority, retirement, and vested interest. The thrust is always toward greater security and less responsibility for the individual member of the system. Self-serving bureaucracy does not thrive only in the echelons of administration; its roots drive deep into every academic and vocational department [1]. Still, in their own world, educational institutions must persevere in retaining the principles of autonomy so characteristic of the American genius and so essential to the search for, and the propagation of, the truth. Even aside from this, and in an immediate and practical sense, they must find ways to preserve the impulse to be hard and to prevent the alienation of the students.

Feedback and the Dinosaur

In the Los Angeles City School System there were, until recently, two legal identities—a unified district and a junior college district—but they were governed by the same board of education and administered by the same superintendent. Thus the colleges shared the same problems that hamper those that are integral parts of large unified and high school districts. Between the colleges and the superintendent stood an array of assistant and associate superintendents in charge of the service divisions—Budget, Controlling, Personnel, Business. In fairness, it must be said that, while there was a Division of Instructional Services, the colleges were allowed almost complete freedom in the development and coordination of curriculum, but the associate superintendent in charge of Instructional Services could—and did—determine who the College Curriculum Coordinator was to be. As a matter of organizational principle, the assistant and associate superintendents outranked the college presidents and were not accountable to the Junior College Central Office. An untenable organization produced an inevitable reaction and, effective July 1, 1969, the people made the Los Angeles Junior College District independent, with its own governing board and administrative superstructure.

The success of any system of communication has two limiting factors—the volume of traffic and the efficiency of the coding and decoding processes. As in a telephone [illegible]ork, the first limiting factor has to do with the time it ta[illegible] to get a message through—and it may fail to get through at all. The second limiting factor has to do with the symbols used. The parties at both ends have to speak the same language [5]. For these reasons, certain organization features are prized by professional personnel. A master plan embodying these features would frame an independent district. Its central office would be disassociated from parallel campuses. It would coordinate instruction, business affairs, vocational education, and some aspects of community services and research. But each campus would be autonomous, each would offer a comprehensive program, and its chief administrator would outrank all staff-function personnel. He would report directly to the district superintendent [6]. If one looks at these criteria, he will see that in every case they assume the principle of self-guidance mechanisms, as in the money market or the movement of impulses in a neural network. When structural relationships confuse the boundaries of systems and impede the flow of feedback, the most serious problems in communication and morale develop. At the present time, the Los Angeles Community Colleges meet all these organizational criteria, but the millennium has not arrived.

The system is troubled by the newness of the central office and the resultant clogging; it has been shaken by social revolution and political backlash; and serious philosophical differences have appeared between the new governing board and the professional personnel of the district. It remains to be seen what impact these developments will have on the development and coordination of curriculum in a massive, grass-rooted system. The ultimate resolution lies in the secret heart of the people, who "say and unsay, put up and tear down and put together again . . . ." [11]. With distress signals coming from both the students and the electorate, professional educators must respond innovatively. Tenure and privilege are a perilous defense. Of course, organization charts never tell the whole story. There are personalities, traditions, vested interests, and all the intangible aspects of informal organization, including the spies of legitimate caucus and the rolling of leadership heads. In the end, only the will and purpose of the people make any system work. A standard textbook, based on the organizational implications of basic research in the behavioral sciences, puts the matter this way:

> The organization and the environment must come to terms with each other—the organization establishing and attaining purposes wanted by the environment, and the environment supporting the organization that satisfies its wants. Similarly, the individual and the organization must come to terms with each other by the individual accepting and facilitating the attainment of the purposes of the organization, and the organization satisfying the wants of the individual [9].

Communication is the nervous system of any organization, physical, organic, or social, not in the narrow sense of media, public relations, or propaganda, but in the fundamental sense of organic structure. So it is with the administrative organization for the development and coordination of curriculum. Apply a rubber hammer to the patella tendon, and you will get a reflex action. Otherwise, something is wrong, and ultimately it will correct itself or cause extinction. The dinosaur evolved a secondary brain at the base of the spine. It was a nervous booster that served much the same purpose as the fireman at the back of a ladder wagon—it steered the rear end around corners. Interlocking systems are greater than their parts; that is to say, such subsystems as campuses, faculties, student governments, the administrative cadre, central office personnel, and governing boards. The object lesson is simply this: any system, however low or high in its hierarchy, must interface with its relative systems or go the way of the dinosaur.

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ED 037 423

Volume 4, Number 7

ERIC

JUNIOR COLLEGE RESEARCH REVIEW

March 1970

Published by the American Association of Junior Colleges

EVENING SERVICES OF JUNIOR COLLEGES

The commitment of most public two-year colleges to serve their nearby community or region comprehensively has caused them to try to provide extensive instructional and student services for evening enrollees. Such efforts put additional demands on college resources, and require not only additional support-services, but also new decisions about policies and procedures.

These decisions and resultant plans are generally more successful if based on research findings. This issue of the *Junior College Research Review* is therefore concerned with the evening services of junior colleges, excluding community services. Eleven pertinent research reports were examined, all selected from materials processed by the ERIC Clearinghouse for Junior Colleges. All have been indexed and abstracted in *Research in Education*. Copies of these are available in either hard copy or microfiche from the ERIC Document Reproduction Service, unless otherwise noted in the bibliography.

Student Services

Quite often regulations for course registration for extended-day programs (college-level courses in the evening) are not stringent. A study of 16 junior college evening services led to the following general statement: "There is a constant problem in class placement of students . . . enrolled without pre-testing. There is less pre-testing of students in evening classes than in day programs. More screening of students before placement in classes was deemed advisable" (ED 018 190).

Fullerton Junior College noted students registering for courses for which they were not prepared. Resulting college studies led to carefully prescribed procedures for evening students. Furthermore, staff hours and job descriptions were planned in detail to provide close integration and equivalent non-instructional services for day and evening operations (ED 022 456).

Research indicates that evening counselors should be prepared to cope with a wider range of student characteristics. While students of "usual college age" enroll in the evening, adults ordinarily enroll in greater numbers. Their personal, family, and employment characteristics vary widely. Evening counselors may need more educational and vocational information, as employed persons enrolled in the evening may range, for example, from a non-high-school-graduate beginning apprentice to a student with a graduate degree taking courses for a special purpose. Transcript evaluations need to be consistent between day and evening, but evening services are more likely to encounter transcripts or other student records that are from non-accredited institutions, are outdated, are from military courses, or from other sources (ED 020 736).

Surveys of 55 junior colleges indicate that evening counselors regarded some 40 problems as uniquely their own in contrast to the problems of day counselors. Four of the more prominent ones are:

1. lack of adequate records and background information on evening students
2. shortage of time for evening students to see counselors
3. limited evening course offerings that make student course programming difficult
4. intensified financial and personal difficulties of evening students (ED 020 736).

Studies of withdrawals by evening students who are employed full-time consistently indicate the advisability of encouraging and facilitating their early use of counseling services so that they may make more realistic decisions about their course selections and loads (ED 012 187).

Instructional Services

Critics of evening services have said that the quality of education is generally sacrificed in evening courses. Reasons cited by the critics include allegations of low student achievement, limited access to the library, as well as fatigue and poor qualifications of the instructors and of the students themselves. Research does not support the critics.

A doctoral dissertation at Florida State University compared the classroom achievement of day and evening students in junior college courses. In general, the study found that evening students performed at least as well as their day counterparts, regardless of whether achievement was measured by teacher-constructed or standardized tests. Young low-ability students performed better in evening classes than in day classes (ED 013 059).

Junior colleges with selective admissions requirements for certain curricula sometimes encourage students who are initially inadmissible to the curricula to prove themselves on a part-time basis in evening courses. Nassau Community College (New York) followed this practice for several years in its transfer curricula. Students were admitted to a curriculum on a part-time probationary status and required to complete three evening courses with a grade average of 2.3 on the 4-point scale in order to gain admission to full-time study. A research design to test this policy's effectiveness in predicting the probability of student success indicated that the minimum grade-point average for full-time admission should be raised to 2.5 for at least 12 units of work (ED 016 446).

Junior colleges desiring to improve the quality of evening instructional programs may be helped by understanding the extent to which day and evening divisions commonly differ in the support services (administrative, supervisory, and special) provided for them. In the mid-1960's, 16 California junior colleges were studied to determine the day-evening disparity of support services. They were selected on the basis of location, type of community, and size, and included both rural and urban colleges. The study identified eight major areas where evening instructional programs received fewer support services than day instructional programs:

1. general administrative services
2. office facilities
3. faculty orientation
4. curricular and instructional support, i.e., supervision, evaluation, course outlines, etc.
5. counseling, guidance, and testing of students
6. library service
7. teaching aids
8. compensation of instructors (ED 018 190).

One study reflecting the collective judgment of 14 experienced evening-division administrators was concerned with procedures for recruiting, selecting, orienting, supervising, and evaluating part-time evening instructors. The study concluded with 47 specific operational recommendations considered useful in improving evening instructional programs (ED 019 958).

General Suggestions

In summary, the following improvements could be made in evening services, particularly for colleges with large numbers of part-time evening instructors and students:

1. sufficient administrative staff to insure that evening programs are supervised and evaluated as effectively as day programs
2. departmental (or equivalent) meetings planned to include part-time instructors and to provide the curricular information necessary to coordinate day and evening programs
3. early adoption of a schedule of departmental meetings so that part-time evening instructors can be obliged to attend them
4. orientation and faculty development activities planned to include the part-time evening instructors
5. standardized testing of evening students for class placement (although many colleges, for good reason, conduct the tests after admission and then permit some students to change from an advanced to a basic course in the same subject field early in the term without loss of credit)
6. measures to facilitate and encourage use of professional counselors by evening students
7. complete library services available at times most useful to part-time evening students and instructors
8. job placement services for part-time evening students
9. the assignment of a supervisory team – to include division or department chairman, a subject-area instructor, and an evening administrator – to assist each new part-time evening instructor.

Suggestions for Future Research

There should be articulation guidelines for the junior college programs of both the established evening colleges and the expanding evening services. Some of the conflicts between the two types of institution have been described, but operational articulation guidelines and procedural arrangements are needed (ED 013 617).

A comparative study is needed of the relative effectiveness of part-time and full-time instructors in helping students learn in accordance with course objectives. Criteria for effective pre-service and in-service activities for part-time evening instructors should also be established. An outline of management practices to enable the institutions to provide evening clerical and administrative services equivalent to day services, but with reduced staff, should be made. Finally, there should be a study of the type of academic calendar (quarter, semester, trimester) or class schedule (number of meetings per week and length of class meetings) and how these affect the achievement and enrollment of evening students.

Thomas M. Hatfield
University of California, Los Angeles

Barton R. Herrscher
Regional Educational Laboratory
for the Carolinas and Virginia

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Recent Clearinghouse Publications

The Clearinghouse has released three Topical Papers since January. The first, Topical Paper Number 8, pertains to international education. Entitled "The Junior College in International Perspective," the paper surveys the development of these institutions in such countries as Australia, Japan, Chili, Canada, and Colombia.

Topical Paper Number 9 is entitled "Identifying the Effective Instructor." It provides a research design, procedures, and rationale for evaluating the effectiveness of instructors, specifically at the junior college level.

Number 10 in the Topical Paper series is entitled "Financing Higher Education: A Proposal." It sets forth the author's ideas and suggestions for providing loans (from the federal government) to students in colleges and universities and the method for paying back these loans.

Copies of the Topical Papers and price lists are available from the UCLA Students' Store, 308 Westwood Plaza, Los Angeles, California 90024.

Volume 4, Number 8

ERIC JUNIOR COLLEGE RESEARCH REVIEW

April 1970

Published by the American Association of Junior Colleges

PAYING FOR JUNIOR COLLEGES

For the past two decades, the American people have been paying more and more for education. During the 1950's, the increased cost was primarily for elementary schools, which were absorbing the enrollment increases resulting from the postwar baby boom. As the elementary schools clamored for more money, the people began to complain about their efficiency, and legislators expressed the belief that the elementary schools should be able to handle the enrollment increase without such increases in cost.

The enrollment increase during the 1960's hit the high schools, where the per pupil cost was somewhat greater than it was in the elementary schools. As high school enrollments skyrocketed, there was a corresponding demand for more classroom space and additional teachers. Criticism of the efficiency of the school system shifted from the elementary schools to the high schools, and people began demanding that the high schools be operated more efficiently.

In the 1970's, enrollment increases will affect the junior colleges and the four-year colleges as never before. The junior college enrollments are especially troublesome, since they reflect not only the increase due to more births but also the increased number of students who are staying in school for more years. Under these conditions, it is not surprising that much of the recent literature relating to junior college finance emphasizes efficient use of existing resources as well as the search for new funds. This issue of the *Junior College Research Review* examines a few of the reports on financing junior colleges that have been received and processed by the Clearinghouse.

A study in Florida investigated the use of federal funds for junior colleges (ED 012 591) and, in particular, asked whether the increased support from state and federal sources would provide additional funds for junior colleges or merely replace local funds. Whether state and federal grants would result in greater efficiency in junior colleges was also questioned. The study pointed out that Florida junior colleges have been affected by increased federal grants in the following ways: (1) each of the colleges has employed a person or persons whose full-time job is to work with the federal program; (2) vocational funds have stimulated program development in the occupational areas; (3) the student-aid program has enabled a number of students to attend who might not otherwise have had an opportunity – however, the availability of federal funds has diminished local effort in this area; (4) the availability of federal funds, accompanied by passage of the Civil Rights Bill, has meant a gradual elimination of colleges serving only members of one race, although federal legislation has also resulted in the perpetuation of some small, inefficient colleges for black students; and (5) the federal government's emphasis on the deprived portion of the population has enabled junior colleges to give more than lip service to their stated purposes of providing educational opportunity for all. The general conclusion of this study is that federal funds have been effective in improving the junior colleges in Florida.

A study investigating private funds for junior colleges (ED 011 764) based its findings on 294 replies to questionnaires sent to 376 public community colleges. It was reported that 131 colleges (or 44.5 percent) received no voluntary support and the remaining 55.5 percent received a total of $19 million for the three-year period from July 1960 through June 1963. This was an average annual amount of slightly over $6 million. The researchers pointed out that the largest amount of support was earmarked for buildings and equipment. The second largest category was scholarships, which amounted to 10 percent of all gifts during the three-year period. One hundred and twenty-nine colleges that were independent of public control fared substantially better than the public junior colleges in the receipt of donations from private sources.

For a study aimed at identifying educational fund-raising practices in selected private junior colleges in the United States (ED 020 722), a questionnaire was sent to 174 private two-year colleges. Sixty-six percent of the colleges replied to the questionnaire. In summarizing the findings, the investigator concluded that most of the two-year colleges participating in the study did not have well-defined long-range plans, nor well-organized plans to solicit money from their constituencies. Based on these findings, the study recommended that junior colleges should consider the employment of at least one full-time fund-raising officer and suggested that adequately staffed financial-advancement programs for larger junior colleges should have a director, a fund-raising officer, a public relations officer, and an alumni officer.

A study of the support for junior colleges that is derived from philanthropic organizations was conducted (ED 023 403). The researcher found that the majority of junior colleges, both independent and church-related, maintain some type of development programs for voluntary support. For church-related junior colleges, however, there appeared to be no relationship between the average annual amount received and the presence of a developmental officer, an alumni organization, or an alumni fund. In this respect, the study's findings seemed to contradict those in the study on fund-raising practices in private junior colleges in the United States.

Several articles have been written in an attempt to identify the cost per student of various courses offered in junior colleges. In one study, a brief history of efforts to establish a system of classifying data on the income and expenditures of colleges and universities is presented (ED 013 492). The author reviewed the literature on unit cost studies and summarized the major findings of these studies. The work does not deal specifically with junior colleges as a distinct type of institution, however.

In a study related specifically to junior colleges (ED 013 085), the researcher compared the cost of special and technical curricula of less than four years in length to the cost of general or liberal arts curricula leading to programs of study that require four or more years of college. The report concluded that most of the vocational and technical programs offered in junior colleges cost more per student than do the liberal arts and transfer programs in the same institutions. It is estimated that engineering-technology curricula cost, on the average, about two times as much per student as do liberal arts courses; courses leading to employment in health and medical occupations cost about the same as courses leading to employment in industrial-technical occupations. Each of these costs about one-and-one-half times as much per student as do liberal arts courses. He also pointed out that some vocational curricula, such as business and office occupations and public service occupations, cost slightly less per student than do liberal arts and transfer curricula in the same institution. The recommendation was made that state support for junior colleges should be on a budget-approval basis, so that the excessive costs of vocational courses would not represent an undue burden upon local taxpayers.

The Office of Surveys and Evaluation of the Virginia Community College System published a report (ED 019 921) that compares the per student cost of vocational and technical courses with the corresponding costs of other courses. The report concluded that, on the average, it costs more per student to provide the specialized vocational and technical curricula than it does to provide the liberal arts curricula designed for transferring. Smaller student-staff ratios in shops and laboratories, and the need for additional equipment are given as reasons for the cost differences. The report suggested that there is a tendency for local boards of control to establish and operate the least expensive programs, and it urged that new curricula leading to employment in new occupations should be established and operated even at a high unit cost until enrollments increase to make it possible to operate these programs on a more economical basis.

The effect of possible increases in tuition fees for public higher education in California was analyzed by the Coordinating Council for Higher Education (ED 011 197). All segments of the educational system were considered and the report suggested several alternative policies – other than tuition. One proposal was to increase the tuition payments at four-year colleges while leaving junior colleges tuition free. The possible effects of this and other policies were analyzed.

A descriptive study of present policies for financing junior colleges in California was presented in a publication issued by the California State Department of Education (ED 011 451). This publication reviewed the history of junior college finance in California and presented guidelines for a satisfactory finance program; in the final chapter, several alternate plans were suggested for improving the basis for junior college financial support.

Summary

Since states organize their junior colleges in various ways, the problems associated with junior college finance naturally differ from state to state. Much of the literature pertaining to junior college finance, therefore, is inaccessible because it is scattered and associated with other kinds of studies. Sometimes the financing of public junior colleges is regarded as an integral part of the total public school finance system; in other cases, the financing of public junior colleges is handled as essentially a separate system or as closely associated with the financing of higher education. There are also private junior colleges that are financed by tuition and by grants from private sources. Since much of the junior college finance literature is part of other studies, researchers interested in pursuing the subject may have difficulty locating and utilizing all of the available literature that has been collected by the Clearinghouse.

Studies pertaining to the per student cost of various courses, especially studies that compare vocational and technical courses with college transfer courses, should be very useful for the development of a broader and more comprehensive junior college program. Several of the studies cited in this review contain valuable information on this subject and lead to significant suggestions concerning the best ways to finance a broad and comprehensive junior college program.

Erick L. Lindman
University of California, Los Angeles

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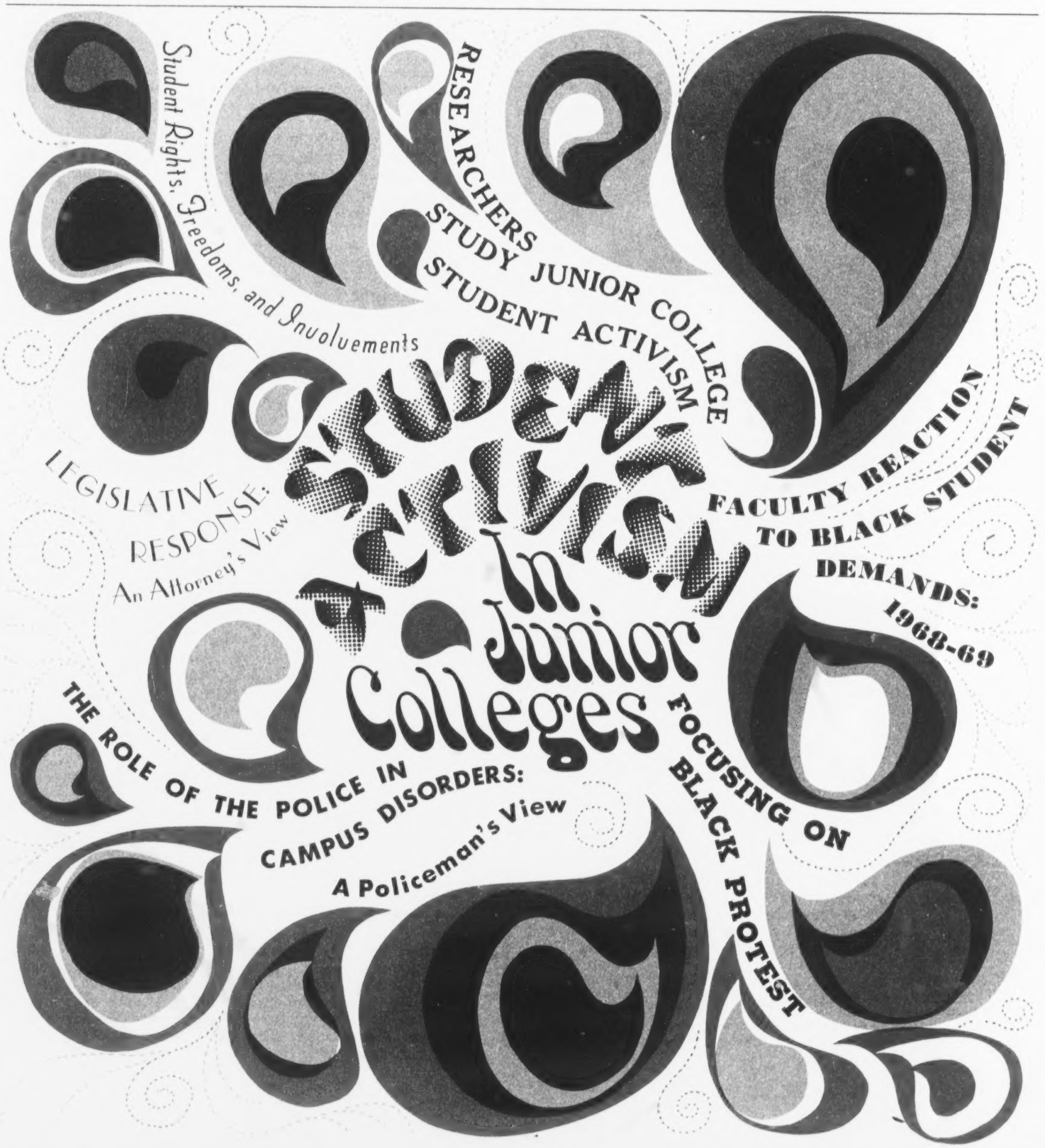
Volume 4, Number 9

JUNIOR COLLEGE RESEARCH REVIEW

May 1970

Published by the American Association of Junior Colleges


Student Rights, Freedoms, and Involvements
RESEARCHERS STUDY JUNIOR COLLEGE STUDENT ACTIVISM
STUDENT ACTIVISM In Junior Colleges
LEGISLATIVE RESPONSE: An Attorney's View
FACULTY REACTION TO BLACK STUDENT DEMANDS: 1968-69
THE ROLE OF THE POLICE IN CAMPUS DISORDERS: A Policeman's View
FOCUSING ON BLACK PROTEST

RESEARCHERS STUDY JUNIOR COLLEGE STUDENT ACTIVISM

Dale Gaddy ▪ **University of California**
Los Angeles, California

Born in the Free Speech Movement of Berkeley in 1964, the modern era of student activism developed first and foremost in four-year colleges and universities, but eventually it spread to other levels of education including junior colleges. Much has been written about this phenomenon with regard to other levels of education, but little has been recorded about *junior college* activism—and almost no *research* has focused on the latter. (Lombardi [ED 028 767], writing about activism in junior colleges, asserts, "In no area of junior college education is there less study . . . .")

What is the scope of student unrest in American junior colleges? Are the "rights" claimed by junior college students well- or ill-founded? What reactions are evident among junior college faculty and administrators? How should acts of student protest be handled? These are but a sample of the myriad of questions that need to be answered as we strive to understand student activism and attempt to make prudent decisions regarding its causes and effects.

Reviewed here are 12 documents pertaining to certain aspects of activism in two-year colleges. All of these documents have been processed at the junior college clearinghouse for input to ERIC and are available in microfiche (MF) and hard copy (HC) from the ERIC Document Reproduction Service as explained on page 16.

Extent of Student Activism

No exhaustive survey of student activism in American junior colleges has been reported,[1] although Jones' 1968 survey [ED 028 780]—based on a 10 percent sampling of institutions listed in the 1967 *Directory of American Junior Colleges*—netted responses from 68 colleges in 30 states. On the basis of this sample, it was concluded that junior college student unrest had been primarily in the form of nonphysical protest—i.e., the writing of resolutions, petitions, and editorials. Of 201 such protests, the major issues were student publications (28), dress and appearance regulations (28), food service (26), and student representation in policy-making (23). Other issues of protest included, in descending order of frequency, student political activity, controversy involving a faculty member, student civil rights activities, controversial speakers, dissatisfaction with instruction, dormitory or off-campus housing, fraternities and sororities, allegations of poor teaching, drinking on campus, and career recruitment. Nondisruptive picketing and demonstrating accounted for 24 incidents, with student civil rights activities having the greatest number — 6. Thirteen protests of a defiant or disruptive nature were recorded; again, student civil rights activities was the leading issue, with three incidents noted.

In the ERIC/AAJC monograph series, Lombardi [ED 028 767] explains why activism in junior colleges has been moderate in comparison with the Berkeleys and Columbias of higher education. He indicates: (1) junior college students achieve their own identities largely as a result of the counseling and guidance services available to them; (2) because junior college faculty senates have not yet acquired the power and prestige of those in higher education, student personnel officers are on an equal (hierarchical) level with other administrators and, therefore, they are not hampered in the exercise of their responsibilities when crises involving students arise; (3) junior college students are less mature and more dependent on financial support from home or from their employment than are their counterparts at four-year colleges; (4) most junior college students live off campus, apart from the masses; (5) professional leaders of revolution have concentrated their disruptive efforts and financial resources on the larger, four-year campuses, where the "bringing [of] prominent colleges and universities to a halt attracts more attention than similar activity on junior college campuses;" and (6) the characteristics of junior college students (particularly as described by Patricia K. Cross, *The Junior College Student: A Research Description*, Princeton, New Jersey, Educational Testing Service, 1968) show that they are more controllable in their conduct and less flexible in their thinking.

Nevertheless, Lombardi notes that activism is not absent from junior colleges. In fact, he lists 21 types of activities that recently occurred in two-year institutions, including the "frequent presence of members of militant non-college black organizations (Black Panthers, Muslims) to get members, raise defense funds, sell newspapers, etc." He also notes the presence of students carrying guns and knives; threats of bodily harm; threats to destroy college buildings; demands for black instructors; and numerous demonstrations, strikes, walkouts, and sit-ins.

Student Rights and Freedoms

The hallmark of student protest has been in the area of student rights, although the issues have ranged from the Vietnam war to dress codes. When disruptions occur a common assertion by students in particular has been, "These are our rights; you must recognize them!" And the faculty, administrators, and laymen have typically retorted: "You don't have the right to act in that manner!" Depending on who is speaking, and to whom such statements are directed, the "rights" claimed by one might be regarded as "privileges" by the other.

Do junior college students have rights? Some people might argue that the students, by virtue of the *in loco parentis* doctrine to which some junior colleges persistently cling, do not have all of the rights to which students in four-year institutions are entitled. This point notwithstanding, junior college students have the same rights and freedoms as do nonstudents; they do not forfeit their rights or freedoms upon enrolling at an educational institution. This does not mean that they have the right to conduct themselves in any manner they wish. Indeed, courts have held that educational institutions may legally regulate the conduct of students as long as the rules and regulations are reasonable and are equitably administered [ED 026 039].

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[1] The writer of this review is presently engaged in a national study of junior college student activism, in conjunction with a postdoctoral fellowship at UCLA. The results of this survey, based on responses to a questionnaire mailed to junior college deans of students, will be published in the ERIC/AAJC monograph series later this year.

Although the list of student rights and freedoms includes freedom from discrimination on the basis of race, color, and creed; freedom from unlawful searches and seizures; and other freedoms guaranteed by the Constitution, the one that is most germane to the topic of student activism is the freedom of expression. Courts during the past decade alone have ruled that (1) public colleges cannot censor a student publication in the absence of proof that such a means of expression "materially and substantially interferes with the requirements of appropriate discipline in the operation of the school;" (2) students have no less a right to demonstrate on the campus of a state college than on the grounds of a state courthouse; and (3) state colleges may not bar the appearance of a guest speaker on the ground that he is a Communist, or on the ground that his views are not in agreement with those of a college official. During the same decade, courts have also ruled that a private educational institution is not subject to the provisions of the federal Constitution even though it has received financial assistance from the federal government; a college may prohibit acts calculated to undermine school discipline; college students do not have the right to violate the constitutional rights of others; college students cannot block the entrance or exit of a college building; college students cannot "verbally abuse another or . . . deprive him of his rights to enjoy his lawful pursuits;" and "conduct involving rowdiness, rioting, the destruction of property, the reckless display of impropriety or any unjustifiable disturbance of the public order on or off campus is indefensible . . ." [ED 026 039].

In addition to such substantive issues as the foregoing, courts have established certain minimal standards of procedural due process to which colleges must adhere in cases where suspension or expulsion might result. These are paraphrased as follows:

1. The student must be given notice of the charges against him and the ground which, if proven, would justify expulsion or suspension.
2. He must be given the names of the witnesses against him and an oral or written report on the facts to which each witness testified.
3. He must be given a hearing (public, if requested by the student) and the opportunity to confront witnesses against him and to present oral and written evidence in his defense.
4. He must be notified of the time, place, and date of the hearing and allowed sufficient time to prepare a defense.
5. Any action against him must be taken by a duly established disciplinary body operating under regular procedures.
6. A report of the findings and results of the hearing must be made available for his inspection [ED 027 005].

Attitudes toward Student Activism

In the absence of any empirical study to the contrary, it appears that the majority of junior college students are apathetic with regard to the activist roles of their more militant classmates—or, at the most, are passive observers. In Lombardi's treatise [ED 028 767], it was estimated that, nationally, no more than 2 percent of the students are active participants in campus agitations.

On occasion the activists align themselves with faculty members in opposing the administration. To the extent that faculty members find their own goals in agreement with or identical to the goals of student activists, some of them support the student activists. "This appears to be a natural alliance," Lombardi writes, "since both groups favor many of the same issues and seek freedom from administrative rules and regulations. Both attack the 'Establishment,' a vague term but one with emotional connotations to students and faculty who chafe at any restriction on their activities."

To what degree do members of the faculty support the activists, however? Or, from the other side of the issue, to what degree do junior college faculty members oppose such forces? One researcher attempted to measure this aspect in the aftermath of a campus strike at a California junior college [ED 030 423]. He found that 66 percent of the faculty supported the issues of the students to some degree, but only 1 percent agreed wholeheartedly. Twenty-six percent believed that the student issues were fictitious and, therefore, opposed the strike. Another 7 percent were unable to determine the extent to which they agreed or disagreed with the students.

In Jones' study [ED 028 780], it was reported that 3 of the 68 responding institutions characterized their faculties as leaders of student protest activities; 11, active participants; 22, passive supporters; and 32, with no discernible faculty involvement.

Faculty members react favorably toward student activism when the issues are free speech, freedom from censorship, and experimental colleges, according to Lombardi [ED 028 767], but they are more sharply divided when the issues are the Vietnam war, admissions standards, and the matriculation of minority students on a quota formula. Faculty members' opposition is greatest when acts of student protest interfere with their classes or when the issues of student protest are the appointment of minority professors and administrators to the college, the revision of grading practices, student evaluation of instruction, the hiring and firing of instructors, or a revision of the curriculum.

Junior college administrators are regarded as opponents of student activism, particularly when disruptive acts occur [ED 028 767; ED 028 780]. It is stated in one report [ED 026 039] that administrators—as the action agents in the educational bureaucracy—are in the best position to provide leadership for certain student rights. "Yet," the report continues,

> the concerned administrator, faced with the dilemma of nurturing an educational atmosphere while trying to maintain proper decorum in campus life, characteristically guards against the liberalization of student affairs. For the administrator—especially with respect to his governing board—the value of all the progressive steps taken toward the development of an "unencumbered atmosphere of intellectual freedom" can be eradicated by one riot, however minor the disturbance might be. Given the alternatives, most administrators would tend to pursue a conservative course.

Administrative Remedies

There is no single formula that all junior college administrators can follow in dealing with student activism; each campus is different, and each incident of protest calls for individual treatment. Certain principles that are based on the opinions and research of learned individuals and societies and on decisions of federal, state, and local courts can serve as guidelines, however.

Included in the opinion category are the following: Anders' review of related literature [ED 031 214]; Bagnall's outline of a contingency plan developed at a western junior college [ED 031 210]; Walker's endorsement of the "house plan" as a means of minimizing the impersonality of large student enrollments [ED 026 985]; a conference report emanating from the California Junior College Association [ED 024 398]; and Blocker's suggestions for institutional responses to student unrest [ED 027 900]. The latter suggests a thorough and critical examination of the philosophy and missions of the college and an understanding of these concepts. Further recommendations are for a reconsideration of the organization and application of the guidance services as they relate to the present generation of students, as well as involvement of students, faculty, administration, and the governing board in the development of the institution's policies and procedures.

Research documents include Yoder's dissertation, which suggests that standards of student discipline should be developed by junior colleges [ED 022 460]. Jones' sampling of student protest revealed that as acts of protest reached the defiant stage, the administrative action involved primarily the suspension or expulsion of ringleaders, the calling in of police, and the instigation of legal action.

In recent years, various professional associations have drafted statements regarding student rights—statements that within themselves suggest certain actions or responses on the part of administrators. These are reviewed in some depth in two of the research reports [ED 026 039 and ED 028 767] as well as in Bromley's article that begins on page five.

Perhaps the most significant report is the 1967 "Joint Statement on Rights and Freedoms of Students," in which the following major sections appear:

1. the freedom of access to higher education (admissions policies)
2. freedom in the classroom (expression, academic evaluation, and disclosure of information regarding ability and character of students)
3. students records (contents of transcripts and access thereto)
4. freedom on the campus (association, inquiry and expression, institutional government and publications)
5. off-campus freedom (citizenship and civil law)
6. standards in disciplinary proceedings (standards of conduct for students, investigation of student conduct, status of student pending final action, and hearing committee procedures).

Of this and similar documents, Lombardi [ED 028 767] observes:

> These contain suggestions on the "acceptable" practices and procedures that will conform to the new freedoms won by students through conflict, persuasion, court action, and legislation.
>
> . . . By themselves the documents will not restore harmony on campus. They require acceptance by administrators; they need to be converted into campus rules supplanting those that contribute to student unrest.

Suggestions may, of course, be heeded or ignored. But court decisions legally cannot be ignored. Hence, rules and regulations formulated by junior college administrators cannot be ambiguously stated, cannot reflect discrimination against opposing points of view, and cannot be couched in terminology that is too general [ED 026 039]. As was pointed out in a Clearinghouse topical paper, a study based on a review of litigation in the area of student activism:

> Colleges may legitimately designate the place and time of [student speeches on campus], the standard of language acceptable to the academic community, and the procedures by which the event may be slated . . .
>
> Except when it is unmistakably evident that a clear and present danger exists, or a riot or disorder is imminent, or that there is an immediate threat to public safety, peace, or order, a public college cannot restrict the right of its students to assemble peaceably . . .
>
> Student publications may not be censored short of a clear showing that the writing materially and substantially interferes with the discipline of the college [ED 026 039].

Also significant have been the standards of procedural due process that were outlined by the courts for educational institutions. These, paraphrased by Witner [ED 027 005], are presented above, and were also noted in the publication entitled *Student Activism and the Junior College Administrator: Judicial Guidelines* [ED 026 039].

Needed Research

Much research is needed in the area of junior college student activism. There is a need to know the scope of activism (number of protests, issues protested, etc.); the mode of protest (circulation of petitions, burning of buildings, or whatever); sponsors of the protests (black power groups, SDS, etc.); and the immediate and long-range reactions to incidents of protest (calling in municipal police, restructuring the curriculum, revising student conduct rules). There is, furthermore, a need to know the more fundamental aspects of activism—its motivating factors among students in two-year colleges.

The Clearinghouse solicits from the field duplicate copies of any such research.

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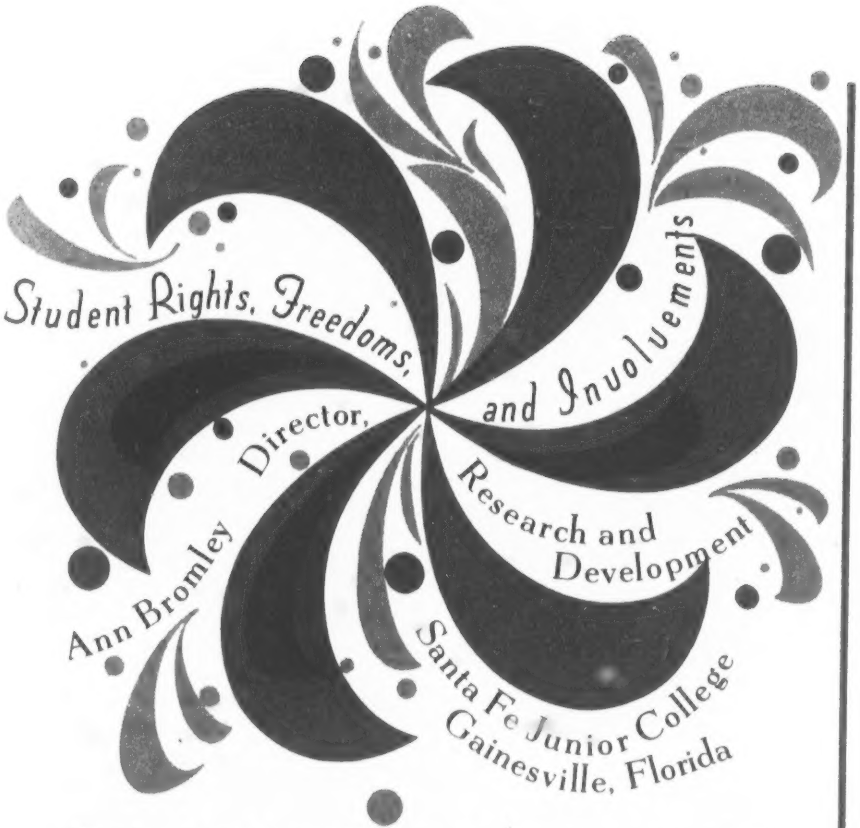

Student Rights, Freedoms, and Involvements

Ann Bromley
Director, Research and Development
Santa Fe Junior College
Gainesville, Florida

The decade of the 1960's was characterized educationally by such terms as "student revolt," "student protest," "student dissent," "student activism," and "institutional breakdown." Place names such as Berkeley, Columbia, Wisconsin, San Francisco State, and Harvard, came to connote vivid pictures of students in confrontations with police, state militia, and campus administrators. Students became involved in campus, social, national, and international issues.

The number of articles in educational and professional journals dealing with dissension and violence and the rationale for the protests as well as numerous projections as to the future of educational institutions have increased substantially in the last five years. A majority of these articles present speculative or theoretical analyses of the student movement. And there is little doubt that the revolutionary activities on many campuses were directly related to evolutionary developments that went unheeded.

Review

Concern for student rights and responsibilities, student reactions through protest, and judiciary review of action taken by a university or college with respect to one of its students is not new. It reaches back into the previous century, at least. According to Rudolph [9:98], President Ashbel Green of Princeton University remarked of one of the six rebellions that occurred on that campus between 1800 and 1830, "the true causes of all these enormities are to be found nowhere else but in the fixed, irreconcilable and deadly hostility . . . to the whole system established in this college . . . ."

Princeton was not alone. Between 1800 and 1875, students were in rebellion on at least one occasion at Miami University, Amherst, Brown, University of South Carolina, Harvard, Yale, Dartmouth, Lafayette, Bowdoin, City College of New York, Dickinson, and DePauw.

Seventy-nine years ago a student was dismissed from a state university. The resulting decision by the Illinois Supreme Court underscored the principle of *in loco parentis*. The court upheld the university in its action of dismissal on the ground that by voluntarily entering the university, the student "necessarily surrenders many of his individual rights." No one will deny the dramatic change that has taken place in the last half-century in terms of the relationships between academic institutions and their constituents. The terms of the social contract have shifted, and the academic community has revised some of its fundamental priorities.

As early as 1955, professional organizations and groups in higher education began to draft statements and issue resolutions on student rights, freedoms, and involvements. In June 1967, representatives of five national organizations—the American Association of University Professors, the National Association of Student Personnel Administrators, the Association of American Colleges, the United States National Student Association, and the National Association of Women Deans and Counselors—prepared a joint statement on student rights and freedoms for endorsement by their respective organizations. One of the major purposes of this joint statement was to open the lines of communication between the various segments of the academic community and to direct attention to a long-overdue review of college procedures, policies, goals, and regulations.

While serving as a student personnel specialist with the American Association of Junior Colleges, Matson wrote, "In recent months two documents have been prepared which have great significance for students in community junior colleges as well as in other institutions of higher education" [6:38]. The documents to which she referred were (1) a statement of policy regarding the confidentiality of student records, issued by the American Council on Education, and (2) the "Joint Statement on Rights and Freedoms of Students." How extensively the context of these or similar documents has been woven into student handbooks, administrative thought, college procedures, and college policies is not known.

Charles C. Collins made a plea to include students in the democratic participatory process in higher education. He indicated that students rarely have an established recourse to assure a fair hearing when an injustice has occurred [2]. The number of institutions that have broadened the membership on policy-making committees by including voting student members is not known.

Research

Research efforts have been directed primarily to surveys and information on the degree of student involvement in protests, profiles of student dissenters, and analyses of causes of protests.

In the fall of 1965, Richard E. Peterson sent questionnaires to the deans of students at 996 accredited four-year, degree-granting institutions to determine the scope of organized student protest in 1964-65. The instrument contained brief statements about 27 issues concerning faculty, instruction, freedom of expression, student-administration relations, and off-campus issues. For each issue, the deans of students indicated (1) that organized protest did not occur at the institution; or (2) the frequency of the protest; and (3) the percentage of the student body involved. Eighty-two percent replied. Off-campus issues and issues of student/administration relations were mentioned by about 55 percent of the respondents. Peterson also reported that about 4 to 8 percent of the student body was involved in protest, with the largest involvement being on issues relating to student/administration relations [8].

Trent and Craise endorsed Peterson's findings with respect to degree of student involvement: "The major thesis of this paper is that the intense political activism observed on some campuses recently is not pervasive and is representative of only a small proportion of college students in the United States" [11:35]. Keniston concurred that only a small percentage of the college students are dissenters. He pointed out that *issues for protest* are a necessary ingredient—no issue, no protest.

Protests fall into two categories—on-campus and off-campus; and in some circumstances these are fused. An administration's liberal, nonrestrictive policies and concern with students' rights and freedoms can help to keep protests to a minimum [4].

In 1967-68, Milton O. Jones used a questionnaire-opinionnaire instrument to determine the degree of student unrest and protest activities in junior colleges [3:6]. As a result of the survey, Jones concluded that:

1. Student unrest activities in the junior colleges were primarily in the form of nonphysical protest
2. Twenty percent of the deans of students indicated that some faculty members took active roles in protest situations
3. Student personnel departments have made plans relative to possible protest situations—only 10 percent of the respondents indicated no planning had been done
4. Forty-five percent of the responding institutions indicated that governing boards had taken no action relative to protest situations—17 percent had adopted some policy
5. Fifty-five percent of the colleges indicated that no legal opinion had been sought concerning institutional response to protest activity
6. Respondents agreed that attempting to meet students' needs and involving students in policy-making are very important factors in precluding student unrest from developing into protest activity
7. Respondents rated the nonresidential nature of the junior colleges as the most important reason for lack of protest in these institutions.

Recently the American Council on Education undertook a survey of campus unrest. The report by Bayer and Astin [1] focuses on major incidents during the academic year and attempts to link campus unrest with a wide variety of institutional characteristics. The questionnaire requested information on each incident of campus protest, the mode of the protest, the issues, as well as the results, consequences, and changes that occurred during the academic year 1968-69. The responses were from 382 institutions—25 were two-year private colleges and 54 were two-year public colleges. One conclusion was that major protest incidents were least likely to occur in two-year colleges; none of the private two-year colleges experienced disruptive protests; and of the public two-year colleges, only about one in 20 had an incident involving a violent protest. An additional one in 20 had a nonviolent disruptive incident. Institutional size was found to be related to the occurence of violent and nonviolent disruptive protests, as the authors reported,

> None of the sample of universities or two-year colleges enrolling less than 1,000 students reported an incident of violent protest. . . . Among institutions of intermediate size (enrollment between 1,000 and 5,000 students) four per cent of the two-year colleges . . . experienced violent protest. . . . Of the very large junior colleges (enrollment over 5,000), more than a third experienced at least one such incident [1:341].

Again, on-campus issues were the most frequent rallying causes for either violent or nonviolent protests. Identifiable campus issues were:

1. instituting special educational programs for disadvantaged or minority groups
2. allowing greater student participation on committees
3. changing institutional disciplinary practices
4. challenging apparent administrative indifference or inaction to grievances
5. challenging alleged administrative indifference to local community problems [1:344].

In most instances, the administrations did not make changes as a direct result of the protests. Those making changes were most likely to grant greater power to students or form new committees or study groups or change the curriculum.

Government Involvement

Even though research has shown that only a small percentage of students took part in protest activities and that these activities occurred on relatively few of the college and university campuses in the United States, the federal and local governments have become concerned about student unrest and violence. In some instances the concern led to legislative action.

The National Commission on the Causes of Prevention of Violence, chaired by Milton S. Eisenhower, has recommended that the higher-education community attempt to reach a broad consensus on how to handle student disorders. The Commission urged the public to be patient and warned that repressive legislation could have far-reaching and dangerous consequences for higher education.

The magnitude of governmental rebuttal is indicated by new federal legislation that denies financial aid to a student convicted of a crime which involves force, destruction, or seizure of property that is under the control of any institution of higher education. Last year Governor Rockefeller signed a bill requiring New York colleges and universities to adopt rules and regulations for the "maintenance of public order" or face the risk of losing state funds.

Several states—including California and Florida—are gathering data from the community junior colleges on a number of topics related to the student movement. They ask whether a policy on student rights has been formulated, the degree of student participation on college policy-making committees, the techniques used to prevent student unrest, and whether students participate in the meetings of the governing boards.

Many colleges and universities appear to be responding to these concerns in meaningful and constructive ways. They are examining the rules, regulations, and policies that have governed students for many years. Discussion groups with students are being established, concerning curriculum, racial problems, and student freedom and responsibilities. Substantial efforts are being made to inform students, faculty, administration, and the public of the disciplinary measures established to curb excessive exuberance.

These activities must be reinforced and expanded in the decade to come. The student protest movement is not over; but in the decade of the 1970's the student reform movement should not catch the administrator in the surprised, confused, and ill-prepared situation that characterized him in the decade of the 1960's.

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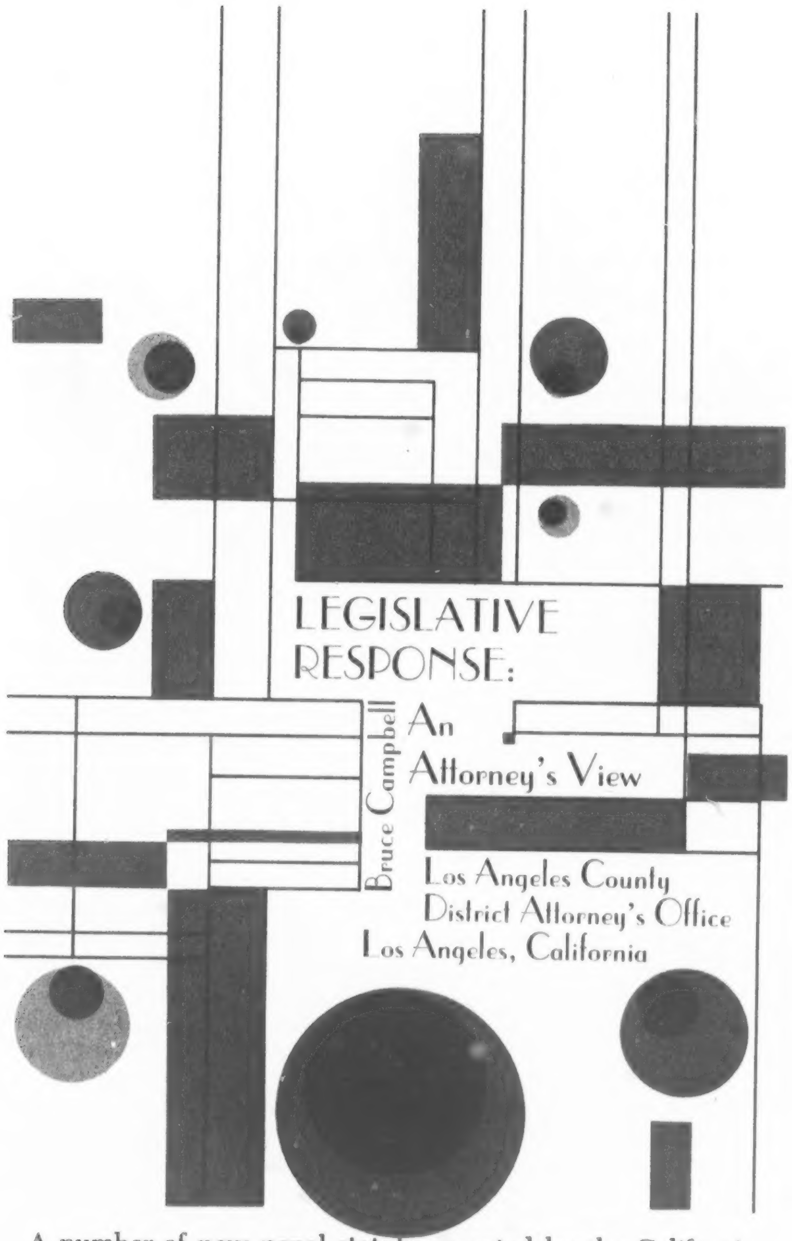

LEGISLATIVE RESPONSE:

An Attorney's View

Bruce Campbell
Los Angeles County
District Attorney's Office
Los Angeles, California

A number of new penal statutes enacted by the California Legislature in 1969 may have a strong effect on campus disturbances in this and ensuing years.

Revised Legislation

A new Section 415.5 has been added to the Penal Code, immediately following Section 415 – Disturbing the Peace. This venerable law, first enacted in California in 1872, provides that

> Every person who maliciously and willfully disturbs the peace or quiet of any neighborhood or person, by loud or unusual noise, or by tumultuous or offensive conduct, or threatening, traducing, quarreling, challenging to fight, or fighting . . . or [uses] any vulgar, profane, or indecent language within the presence or hearing of women or children, in a loud and boisterous manner, is guilty of a misdemeanor.

This law, as well as the rest of the Code, applies to acts that take place on schoolgrounds, college campuses, or anywhere else. Section 415.5 has an important effect when this type of conduct disturbs the peace of a junior college, state college, or state university. A first offense entails a maximum sentence—as does the old law – of 90 days in the county jail or a fine not to exceed $200, or both. Note that these are maximums that *may* be imposed; there is no minimum which *must* be imposed. Unlike the general *disturbing the peace* statute, however, when a junior college, state college or state university is involved, a second offense requires the court to impose a minimum of ten days in jail. This part of the sentence may *not* be suspended on a grant of probation. The maximum is six months and a fine of $500. A third conviction draws a minimum of 90 days in jail. Incidentally, the prior conviction may have been for a violation of this section or any offense outlined in a new chapter of the Penal Code that deals generally with schools, beginning with Section 626. These are discussed below.

Another statue that the Legislature has revised is Section 602 of the Penal Code which deals with the crime of trespass and the myriad ways in which it may be committed. Section 602 now provides that:

> Refusing or failing to leave a public building of a public agency during those hours of the day or night when the building is regularly closed to the public upon being requested to do so by a regularly employed guard, watchman, or custodian of the public agency owning or maintaining the building or property, if the surrounding circumstances are such as to indicate to a reasonable man that such person has no apparent lawful business to pursue; is guilty of a misdemeanor.

The traditional trespass sections have been used successfully in Los Angeles County in the misdemeanor prosecution of students and others who have come onto a campus or have entered a building – whether open to the public or not – for the purpose of interfering with the lawful business being conducted there. Note that this aspect of the trespass law requires proof that the perpetrator intended the interference when he came on the campus, or in some cases when he entered the particular building. In certain situations this proof is difficult to make, since it is possible that demonstrators may have come on to the campus, or had a right to do so, for wholly legitimate purposes; indeed, some may live there. Hence, whatever they may have done after entering might not be a crime under the traditional trespass statute. Perhaps with this in mind, the State Assembly and Senate added Section 602.10 to the Code. It does not require any particular intent when the perpetrator comes onto the campus or enters a building, but does provide that:

> Every person who, by physical force and with the intent to prevent attendance or instruction, willfully obstructs or attempts to obstruct any student or teacher seeking to attend or instruct classes at any of the campuses or facilities owned, controlled, or administered by the Regents of the University of California, the Trustees of the California State Colleges, or the governing board of a junior college district or school district maintaining a junior college shall be punished by a fine not exceeding $500, by imprisonment in a County Jail for a period of not exceeding one year, or by both such fine and imprisonment.
>
> As used in this section, "physical force" includes, but is not limited to, use of one's person, individually or in concert with others, to impede access to or movement within or otherwise to obstruct the students and teachers of the classes to which the premises are devoted.

New Legislation

In enacting a new chapter entitled "Schools" to Title XV of the Penal Code, the 1969 Legislature brought together sections relating to campus disorder previously scattered in other areas of the Code, together with some entirely new statutes. Most of these apply to junior colleges established pursuant to chapter 3 of Division 18.5 of the Education Code, as well as the University of California and the state colleges. The only exception is a section that applies to the first 12 grades and trade, technical, and adult secondary education; it establishes violation in the area of trespass and contains a scale of escalating penalties for offenders who have been convicted previously of a violation of Section 415.5 *or any other offense under this chapter.* Thus, anyone who is convicted of any of the offenses mentioned here may receive only a nominal sentence if this is his first offense. If it is proved, however, that he was previously convicted of the same offense (or another offense under this chapter or of a violation of Section 415.5), he may be subject to a more severe sentence — including a mandatory jail sentence that may not be remitted as a condition of probation.

The offenses set up in this chapter that apply to events on junior college campuses are explained below.

Section 626.2: The substance of this section provides that a student or employee who, after a hearing, has been suspended or dismissed from a school for disrupting the orderly operation of the school, and as a condition of his suspension or dismissal has been denied access to the campus, is guilty of a misdemeanor if he comes back during the period of his suspension or within one year from his dismissal without the express written permission of the chief administrative officer. He must have been notified of his suspension or dismissal by registered or certified mail sent to the last address given by him to the school. The escalating scale of penalties applies to a conviction for violation of this section with prior convictions, and previously described.

Section 626.4 was apparently designed to cover the situation posed by a campus disturber who has come onto the campus lawfully but who wears out his welcome while there. This section provides that the chief administrative officer or someone designated by him to maintain order may notify a person that consent to remain on the campus is withdrawn whenever there is reasonable cause to believe that he has willfully disrupted the orderly operation of the campus. One who enters or remains on campus after notice that permission is withdrawn has committed a misdemeanor.

In the event that consent has been withdrawn by a designee of the chief administrative officer—rather than the chief administrative officer himself—the act is void unless he submits a written report that is approved by the chief administrative officer within 24 hours after consent has been withdrawn. This report must include a description of the person from whom consent was withdrawn and include, if available, his name, address, and telephone number, together with a statement of the facts that gave rise to the withdrawal of consent. In the absence of the chief administrative officer, someone he has designated may make the necessary confirmation.

In no case shall consent be withdrawn for longer than 14 days. Within that time the person barred may make a written request for a hearing. The chief administrative officer shall grant a hearing, to be held not less than seven days from the date of receipt of the request. A written notice of the time, date, and place of the hearing shall be mailed to him at the address indicated on the request.

The chief administrative officer may reinstate consent whenever he has reason to believe that the presence of the person from whom consent is withdrawn will not constitute a substantial and material threat to the orderly operation of the campus or facility.

This section does not limit itself to students, nonstudents, employees, or any other group, but is directed at "any person." Probably for this reason, the Legislature has expressly provided that nothing contained in this section shall affect the power of the college to suspend, dismiss, or expel its students or employees.

Section 626.6 contains a broader grant of authority to college officials with respect to strangers on the campus. It provides that in any case a person who is not a student, officer, or employee and who is not required by his employment to be on the campus, enters the campus, and it reasonably appears to the chief administrative officer or to the person designated by him to maintain order that he is committing an act likely to interfere with the peaceful conduct of the activities of the campus, or has entered it for the purpose of committing such an act, the chief administrative officer or his designee may direct him to leave. If he fails to do so, or willfully and knowingly reenters within 72 hours, he is guilty of a misdemeanor. The exceptions and more elaborate procedural requirements of the preceding section are not included here. A similar scale of escalating penalties for successive violations is involved.

Miscellaneous Legislation

In addition to the foregoing, several miscellaneous bills aimed at the control of campus disorder were passed and placed in various other portions of the Penal Code. These include Section 71, which provides that anyone who attempts to cause, or does cause, any officer or employee of any public or private educational institution or any public officer or employee to do, or refrain from doing, any act in the performance of his duties, by means of a threat — directly communicated to that person — that he will inflict an unlawful injury on any person or property, and if it reasonably appears to the recipient of the threat that such threat could be carried out, this person is guilty of a felony.

The phrase "directly communicated" includes, but is not limited to, a communication to the recipient of the threat by telephone, telegraph, or letter. No offense has been committed under this section unless the threatener *intends* to cause the officer to do or refrain from doing an act as described in the section.

This offense may be punished by imprisonment in the state prison — unlike all the previous offenses described in this article (since those are misdemeanors only). Another felony new to the Code is involved in Section 171c which prohibits bringing a loaded firearm to the grounds of any public school. There are exceptions for peace officers and others. Oddly enough, there may be a question as to whether this law applies to junior colleges, since they are not specifically listed, and the phrase "public school" often is restricted to the first 12 grades and other noncollegiate educational institutions There are companion sections refining the definitions and authorizing examinations of weapons to determine whether or not they are loaded.

With the single exception of Section 72, inasmuch as it relates to threats to school officials and specifically refers to the private as well as the public sector, all of the new sections described in this article refer to public institutions only. The general criminal law of the State of California continues to apply everywhere. Arson, for instance, is arson wherever committed, as are assaults — punishable as such whether they take place on the campus of a public junior college, in a private university, on a street corner, or on skid row. Perhaps the misdemeanor offenses of riot, rout, and unlawful assemblies are more pertinent to this discussion. A *riot* is the use of force or violence, disturbing the public peace, or a threat accompanied by immediate power of execution by two or more persons acting together and without authority of law to act. A *rout* is the assembly of two or more persons acting together to make any attempt or advance toward the commission of an act that would be a riot if actually committed. The dispersal of an unlawful assembly before a riot or rout starts may well avoid the destruction that may attend either, as well as possible injury to persons innocently involved.

The command to disperse must contain three elements in order later to prosecute a failure to obey: (1) the person giving the command has to identify himself as a public officer; (2) he must give the command in the name of the People of the State; and (3) he must direct those who are unlawfully assembled to disperse immediately or face arrest. His announcement must be given in such a manner that it may be heard by all.

Enforcement

In enforcing Penal Code provisions, the administrator will ordinarily look first to the campus police, although the local police and sheriff's departments have concurrent jurisdiction to preserve the peace and to make arrests. Consultation in advance will promote mutual understanding.

THE ROLE OF THE POLICE IN CAMPUS DISORDERS: A Policeman's View

Luther N. Lanier
Inspector, Sheriff's Department
Los Angeles County

One of the challenging problems facing police administrators and educators today is the redefinition of roles and the refining of methods and procedures to keep pace with an ever-changing society. This premise was aptly stated by Peter J. Pitchess, Sheriff of Los Angeles County, in a recent address before the Western Insurance Information Service, December 1969:

> Today, we are faced with constant change, in virtually all aspects of American life. Change causes most of us to feel a little less secure, and change always brings with it a confusion of acts and myths.
>
> Let me be more specific as to why this confusion will continue. Scientists tell us that in the next ten years, man will double his present knowledge of himself and his universe. Thus it isn't change alone, but changing conditions that bring on our confusion, and change is a never-ending phenomenon.
>
> There are many changes which are taking place in law enforcement. Our peace officers find themselves with a changing role, involving both conventional law enforcement and "Revolutionary Law Enforcement" that social evolution has created.

Increased concern with the alarming incidents of campus disorder has fostered a heightened awareness of the necessity and desirability of joint planning and actions by the police and school officials. Too often in the past, this relationship has been surrounded by debate and controversy; and that such uncertainties should exist seems rather paradoxical, since, after all, both parties seek answers to the same problems.

During recent campus disturbances, a question has been raised as to the authority of county or city law enforcement agencies on university and college campuses. In an attempt to answer this fundamental question, the California Appellate Court expressed the opinion that local city police and county sheriff's officers have full authority over the campuses of all state, city, or private educational institutions located within their respective jurisdictions. The fact that such institutions have a campus police or security force does not alter this basic responsibility held by local law enforcement agencies. Furthermore, the authority of local police or sheriff's offices to exercise their law enforcement responsibility on the campus is in no way dependent upon the request, invitation or consent of school officials [*People* v. *Bacon*, 240 Cal. App. 2d 34 (1966)].

Many who have read this opinion have expressed surprise over the fact that law enforcement officials are not required to obtain permission nor do they have to receive an emergency request from the administrative officers of a college or university before they can enter. On the basis of this opinion and other substantive decisions made by the Appellate Courts, the police could enter a college campus at their own discretion during any stage of a display of civil disobedience. Most law enforcement agencies readily recognize, however, that if this authority were exercised prematurely and without consulting with those closest to the problem – namely the responsible leaders of the college – an already explosive situation could rapidly reach catastrophic dimensions. It is for this reason that police and college administrators across the country have sought to develop methods and techniques for recognizing potential problem areas in an effort to neutralize these before they become major focal points of dissent. This attitude and policy of joint planning and responsibility has been highly successful in many cases and has made it possible for law enforcement agencies to join in planting the seeds of community understanding rather than reaping the angry products of campus disorder.

Cooperation Is Crucial

The importance of viable lines of communication between college authorities and local police officials has been graphically illustrated by a recent study ordered by Sheriff Pitchess. Recognizing the need for an in-depth study of college disturbances, he has initiated a review of the school disturbances that occurred within his jurisdiction during the fall of 1968 and spring of 1969. The results of the study indicated that the most effective method used by the sheriff's stations responsible for policing the particular schools was to present a unified front through the close coordination of law enforcement personnel and schools officials.

Findings of the Sheriff's study are consistent with opinions and evidence that have been brought to light in recent reports and publications. In an address to the Los Angeles City Council, Roger E. Murdock, former interim Police Chief of Los Angeles, stated, "Wholehearted cooperation between school administrators and law enforcement officers is the most effective answer to campus disturbances." This view is also held at the state level, as indicated by the statement of California Deputy Attorney General Robert R. Granucci: "While the Office of the Attorney General stands ready to offer assistance and advice when requested, we would emphasize that the most effective answer to school disturbances is the wholehearted cooperation of school administrators and law enforcement agencies at the local level."

Focusing our attention on this premise then, how do we obtain effective cooperation? One obvious answer is to conduct a series of meetings and establish joint communication between school officials, local police commanders, community relations officers, and intelligence officers. This necessary communication must be instituted prior to the outbreak of a school problem and be on a continuing basis if any semblance of success is to be attained. These mutual efforts should produce a number of very important results:

1. opening of informal channels of communication between school administrators and law enforcement officials
2. clarification and understanding of each agency's scope of authority and responsibility
3. removal of misconceptions about each agency's role
4. an understanding by the school officials of the law enforcement agency's policies, philosophy, and arrest procedures
5. the development of firm commitments by each agency
6. an understanding of the school administrator's policies and the privileges and limitations he will apply to students and faculty
7. development of compatible operational plans by each agency
8. formalization of clear definitions of the chains of command.

With the establishment of these lines of communication,

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FOCUSING ON BLACK PROTEST

Charles G. Hurst, Jr.
President
Malcolm X College
Chicago, Illinois

The motivating power behind the educational revolution that is slowly penetrating the black community originated outside the ivory tower setting but is related to the college student activist movements of the late 1960's. The complete impotence of education in relieving the intensity of racism in America inspired black students to join liberal white students in protest and then to initiate protests of their own. These activities led to numerous minor reforms at many schools and to the creation of special courses or curricula in black studies at some. Casual perusal of the facts may not, however, enable people to see the irrevocable interrelationship among the rebellions in the black community, the protest of black students, the disruptive demonstrations by white students, and the flaming rhetoric of revolutionary activists in all parts of the United States. Yet examination and understanding of these relationships is crucial to comprehending the bases for the present unrest in colleges and the directions in which this unrest is heading.

Some Basic Contradictions

The main purpose of these remarks is to delineate some of the more prominent historical circumstances of the past decade in the hope of sharpening some insights and clarifying needed research directions. Taken as a whole, historical facts of life in America represent why I, as a black college president, sympathize unequivocally with efforts to revolutionize education and eliminate racism as a factor in *all* institutions that shape and control the lives of our young people. But aims such as mine can be accomplished only if the educational enterprise will incorporate at every level an intellectual honesty that recognizes fully the rights of black Americans to be free and equal members of the society. Similarly, the white community must come to more than a superficial understanding of the events involving great black leaders and significant black movements as well as the presence of racism in every aspect of American life. Perhaps some carefully undertaken research by black investigators can supply the answers.

Indispensable as these insights are, the efforts to make progress will not be easy, because of the state of educational research at the present time. Obviously, social and educational research efforts of the future cannot follow the excessively simplistic patterns so prevalent in the past. On the contrary, future investigations must delve through sophisticated, multiple-cell designs into the highly complex intricacies of human behavior as shaped by a racist system of life. It must relate the findings to such manifestations of present contradictions as the statements of philosophy—the Constitution, the Bill of Rights, etc.—that undergird our national existence, and the Vietnam war; the belief in justice and the injustice prevailing toward black people; and the determination to pursue truth in our schools as opposed to books and courses that omit or distort the truth about minority groups in America. These contradictions constitute some of the major reasons for student disruptions, black rebellions, and general unrest. The future can be much brighter if our research efforts enable us to examine the events of the recent past with liberal minds and if they lead to effective action before it is too late.

Pioneers in Protest

Malcolm X, an early pioneer in revolutionary protest, introduced to broad public visibility the extent to which black Americans have been conditioned to oppress themselves by accepting such myths as the so-called "white superiority."

(continued from page 9)

hopefully a strong foundation of mutual trust and understanding will be structured. On this basic foundation can be constructed a program of mutual assistance—each agency using its expertise in an attempt to solve each other's problems. This problem-solving approach might best be handled through seminars for the joint training of school administrators and law enforcement command personnel. Using the seminar format, representatives from both groups can attack a multitude of potential problems. The "corporate gamesmanship" technique can be used—simulated situations and role-playing activities are utilized to arrive at mutually satisfactory solutions. This type of free exchange will stimulate cooperation, planning, and tactical coordination, as well as serve to improve the formal and informal methods of handling school incidents.

During the course of meetings between both agencies, one very important and potentially effective action that should be studied is the joint issuance of press bulletins during emergencies. Implementation of this tactic could enable both the school and the police to presents the facts of an incident to the community and the student body, thereby minimizing the effects of adverse rumors inherent in these situations.

Application of Effective Measures

Up to this point attention has been focused on the development of lines of communication between college authorities and law enforcement officials, as well as possible avenues of planning that are available to them within the scope of this program. Consideration will now be given to the practical application of tactics that have been decided on during the discussions. For the most part, campus demonstrations have been disorganized, sporadic affairs, with poor attendance, and they cause only a minimum of difficulty for campus officials. Obviously, this type of activity is best handled by the administration of the college, and by police community relations officers (if the particular issue warrants such representation). If the demonstration becomes a well-organized movement led by militant dissidents, however, further steps must be taken immediately.

By virtue of the fact that college authorities and local law enforcement agencies have planned in advance for such a situation, these steps should be well coordinated and not of an overreactionary nature. One vital step that should be taken at the outset of a major demonstration is the entry on campus of a ranking plainclothes officer of the policing agency. This action is particularly important when the number of demonstrators is high and the likelihood of a disturbance is imminent. By being on the campus, he can effectively evaluate the situation and provide the local police with an on-the-scene representative, advisor, and commander. His presence should preclude any uniformed officers being called on campus when not actually needed. The question of bringing uniformed officers on campus should be resolved by careful consideration by both school officials and police. It is, however, the responsibility of the ranking law enforcement officer to make the ultimate decision about ordering uniformed police on the campus when his considered judgment is that they are required. This is a vital point and should be stressed repeatedly during the initial stages of any mutual program, for it cannot and must not be circumvented by any means.

The responsibility for success or failure of a venture of this nature is shared by both of the agencies involved. Certainly a positive element of trust and respect must be present during all aspects of the endeavor. It is on the basis of this relationship that college administrations and law enforcement agencies will be able to present a unified and coordinated front to any group attempting to force a disruptive and violent confrontation on the college campuses.

Oddly enough, it is the shattering of this same myth that ensures for black youths now considering their educational future that a relevant and inspiring education awaits them at colleges with a new outlook, such as Malcolm X College in Chicago. Malcolm's public indictment of whites for perpetuating the myth of white supremacy underscored what Garvey had espoused some years earlier about black pride and dignity.

Malcolm X was not alone in revealing the evils of the colonial-type existence of black and white people in the United States. Frantz Fanon, another revolutionary of world renown, linked psychiatry with sociology as a means of revealing the oppressive and destructive nature, for both black and white persons, of the relationship between the colonized and the colonizer. Preston Wilcox has indicated that Harold Cruse demonstrated with scholarly precision the black-white conflict as being cultural in form and not merely political in the fragmented and narrow sense. Eldridge Cleaver revealed new intricacies of black-white and male-female human interaction on one level, and mutual self-destruction on the other. Martin Luther King, Jr., a man too human to survive, sought the collective support of his black brothers and died trying to convince white people that racism was a destructive practice that first corrupted and then destroyed.

Of interest in this discussion of activist movements and demands for more meaningful curricula in our educational system is the fact that the critical phase in Malcolm X's development as a revolutionary and an intellectual occurred in a jail cell. Similarly, Dr. King's now famous *Letter from a Birmingham Jail* moved his potential to contribute to the liberation of blacks to a higher plane. Cleaver also wrote from inside a jail house and inspired new insights by black youth. Evidently these black residents of America's jails have held in common—even while in jail—their recognition that racism is the basis of present problems. What Malcolm X had to say about white racism and "tricknology" was matched by Dr. King's essays and speeches on white America's violence and intractability. Both were consistent with Eldridge Cleaver's analysis that all institutions, from religion to education, are organized in every way to protect the white-black status quo.

Of further interest, and quite ironically so, is the evidence that much of white America viewed Malcolm X as being antiwhite; Martin Luther King as being nonviolent; and Eldridge Cleaver as being irreversibly criminal. All these conclusions are erroneous and misleading. They only emphasize the peculiar ability of this nation to assign categorical labels to black men. Moreover, these conclusions give a sharp indication of the superficiality of prevailing understandings on the part of most white people about racism and its consequences. This superficiality of outlook is probably one of the most important factors indicating a need for extensive programs of social research into the impact of white attitudes on educational practices.

As a matter of fact, Malcolm X, a nonracist, was proclaiming that one's right to be human is nonnegotiable. He also was asserting the inalienable right of the human spirit to exist as the free and exalted exemplification of God's will. Martin Luther King was engaged in violent struggle to protect his right to be nonviolent but at the same time to reveal that violence is an inherent part of American life. He, too, was dedicated to the proposition that all men must be made free, and "by any means necessary." Eldridge Cleaver, although a convicted rapist, pointed out through poignant writings that a rapist system inevitably produced rapists—and, as Dick Gregory has commented, one of the prime goals of a human society must be to deal with those factors that create the need for people to rape each other. Cleaver's plea, as with the pleas of the other protestors of the 1960's, was that man's inhumanity to man is a dehumanizing process that must cease if we are to exist as a people or, more importantly as human beings.

The University of the Streets

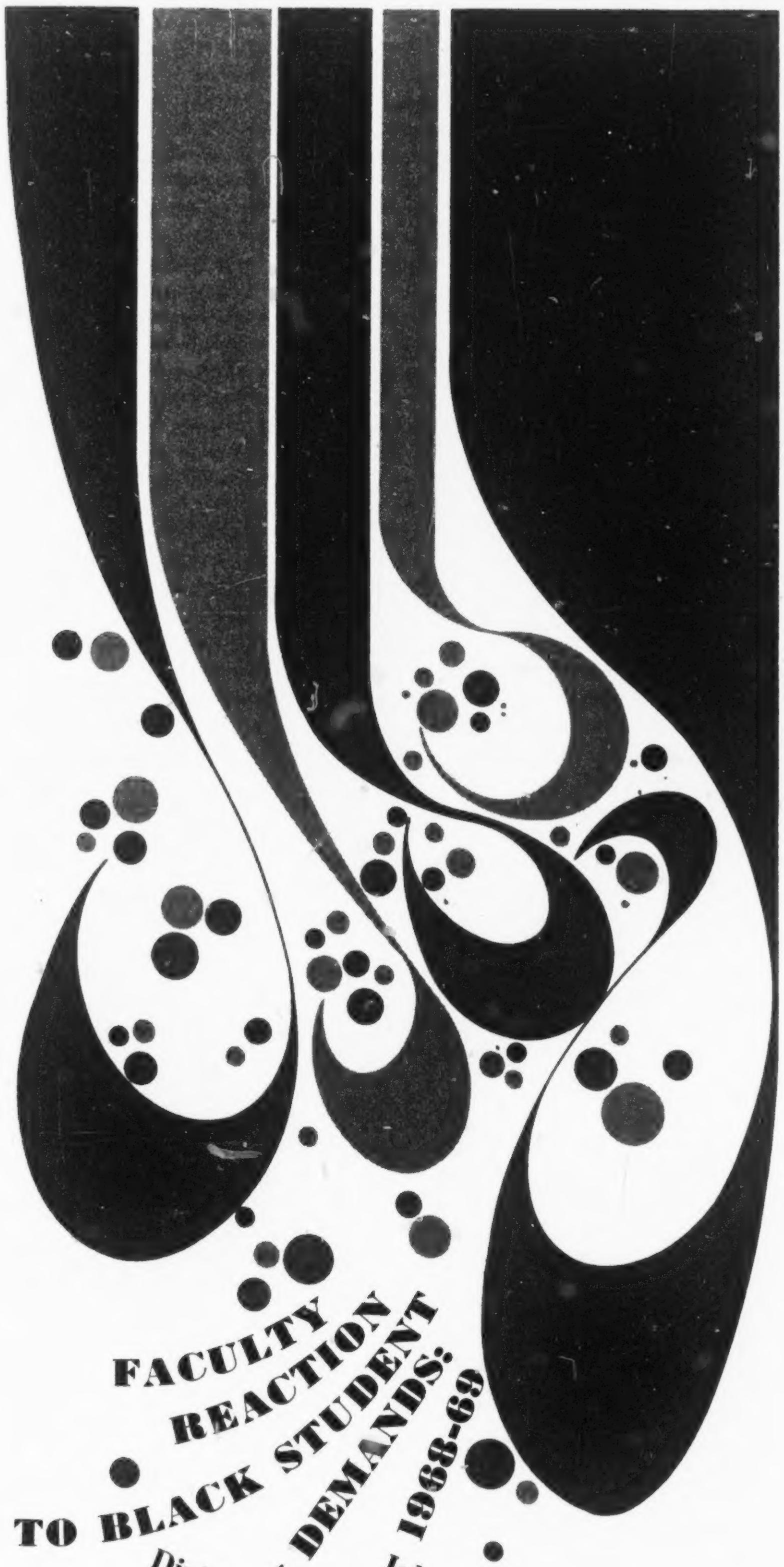
These black revolutionary intellectuals, about whom the white community does not know enough, organized and developed groups to participate in a new kind of university—the university of the streets. This university was the community itself; street corners, stadiums, churches, dance halls, store fronts, picket lines, stages, bars, and jails were the classrooms. The content of the curricula was *real life:* the Birmingham bus strike; the Memphis strike; the march on Washington; the New York school integration struggle; Selma, Alabama; the Freedom Rides; the Huey Newton case; the black revolution. All of these activities made learning and doing inseparable. The authentic role of education was thus revealed as the liberating of all people, the eliminating of all injustice, and the convincing of black people of their essential educability, worth, and humanity. This is what an education that is relevant must be all about; and this is what students, white and black, are protesting about.

Research Needs

We must take a long, hard look at existing research, the needs for research in the future, and the identity of those who should do the research. Too much of the existing educational research is irrelevant and not applicable to black children and youth. Moreover, a careful reinterpretation of the existing research findings must be one of our most urgent tasks. In addition to improved educational techniques, if a more humanistic curricula is to occur, studies must also be made of neurological outcomes of the psychological battering that black children endure in classrooms and other areas during important periods of early development. There is much evidence to support the notion that development of the reticular formation may proceed along deviant lines as one consequence of being poor—not just black, but black *and* poor. These same data show that the reading problems of many black children and youth are neurologically induced as a result of psychologically based phenomena. As one example, the condition known to many as *dyslexia* may be a direct correlate of poverty and vicious discrimination practices. Research can eliminate some of the doubts in these areas.

Intensive investigations are needed of child-rearing techniques and learning styles in the black home. Such studies could lead to more effective instructional techniques for use with black children and youth. It seems logical that classroom techniques should follow as closely as possible the everyday life styles of pupils. Studies must also be conducted on how to teach the linguistic flexibility that aids immeasurably in the survival process for black Americans. Every effort must be made, however, to avoid the implication that black children and youth must be restricted to the stultifying limitations of the English language as it is used in most white middle-class homes. And even more important may be studies in the area of effective auditory training for white teachers, as well as studies of the missionary attitudes that more often than not convert the school setting into a psychological prison for the black student.

Despite the significance of the above, I strongly suspect that the greatest need at the present time is not so much for research on the behavioral characteristics of black students as on the needs and limitations of white teachers and others in the *white* community. In actuality, the American educational scene has been innundated by a proliferation of questionable research reports by researchers in disciplines ranging from linguistics to sociology. Some marginally competent professionals have developed national reputations by means of their reports on the black community which are often of dubious quality and based on assumptions that cannot stand conscientious scrutiny and analysis. In the light of this, one might suggest a river of studies to disprove the notions developed by these works. But time is running out. The problems and many of the answers are obvious: again, the problem is racism; the answer is its elimination.



FACULTY REACTION TO BLACK STUDENT DEMANDS: 1968-69

John Lombardi
Assistant Superintendent Emeritus
Division of College and Adult Education
Los Angeles City Schools

When black student position papers and demands were first being presented to the presidents of colleges and universities, most faculty groups took little formal action. But as the movement has spread, faculty organizations are taking a more active interest. Indeed, interest has turned to concern, since faculty members are observing a growing militancy and, in many instances, a black student movement on their campuses.

By the beginning of the 1968-69 school year, faculties—reluctantly at times – perceived that the black student revolution affected them as much or more than it did the administrators. More and more, the demands of the students were directed against individual and groups of faculty members, against classroom practices, faculty tenure rights, faculty prerogatives in the selection and retention of instructors and development and control of courses and curriculums. Intimidation and assault of faculty members, which occasionally accompanied the militants' activities, made it evident that although the first casualties in the campus warfare were presidents and deans—who subsequently may have resigned, retired early, returned to the classroom, or been forced out by fatigue and exhaustion—their turn now had come. Some of the faculty members most sympathetic to the students even became fearful that the administration's capitulation to the black student demands would hurt everyone more than it would help the situation.

Faculty hesitancy to respond to the threats and demands of the black student groups is traceable to several causes. First, the faculty groups, as well as the college presidents, may have felt that black activism would not be any more difficult to control than the earlier "New Left" militancy had been. True, the concessions made then led to more liberal dress-code and freedom-of-speech policies, but they did not seem to impinge on the prerogatives of the faculty or change the structure of government. Faculty drive for more participation in college administration – through collective bargaining and negotiation—was also occurring. It is worth noting that the first strike in a junior college occurred at Henry Ford Community College in Dearborn, Michigan, in 1966 during the height of the New Left movement. Militant faculty organizations seeking concessions from their administrations could not, with consistency, oppose student efforts to obtain similar concessions. Therefore, when faculty organizations began to act, their position papers showed careful wording in regard to the right of students to dissent and to seek greater self-determination in their own affairs. Furthermore, most faculty organizations contained some liberals who welcomed student activism and at times even helped the students prepare their position papers or encouraged the students to become more active. Militant faculty members who were opposed to the administration may have considered the student activists as their allies in the struggle [9].

Case Studies — Los Angeles

Delay and division marked the early response of various college and district faculty organizations within the Los Angeles Junior College District. The first Black Students Union (BSU) demands were presented to the President of Los Angeles City College in May 1968, followed by some demonstrations and minor violence. Other colleges were also affected by black militancy in various forms, although neither the District Senate, the District Negotiating Council, nor the college academic senates took formal action until late in the fall 1968 semester, and then only after black students engaged in extensive demonstrations, destruction of property, assaults on students and faculty, invasion of classrooms, and disruptions of faculty meetings. Then the various organizations began vying with each other in attempts to pass strong resolutions.

On January 2, 1969, the president of the College Teachers Association called attention to "the outbreaks of violence and anarchy" on the campuses and requested the district administrators to "call a public meeting to share the views of the faculty, the Administration, and the Board and to set forth precisely actions to be taken by the faculty" in disruptive and dangerous situations [18]. The Association, during the following month, requested the College Committee of the Board of Education to assure them that the faculty would be protected from the onslaughts of students and be supported when they took punitive measures against students, particularly in excluding them from class and failing them for academic deficiency.

The AFT College Guild had been under pressure from a large segment of its membership to disassociate itself from support of student activists, and this group called an Executive Board Meeting to discuss a draft resolution on student disorder. Some of the AFT leaders were in a difficult position because they were, in principle, sympathetic to student dissent, but the local membership had reacted unfavorably to the support of BSU activities at San Francisco State College by the AFT affiliate at that college. At any rate, the draft resolution—one of the most moderate statements issued during the period—avoided polarization without yielding to the extreme demands of the students and urged the right of dissent as well as the negotiability of "all demands of students or the community." The statement was

> not intended to discuss the merits of any of the specific demands being made by students. In general, the College Guild has long supported many of the proposals. We still do. We serve notice, however, that we will not surrender the basic principle of the college, either to the militants on the left or the right, the freedom to teach and to learn. While we welcome criticism and suggestions, we will not tolerate violation of academic freedom. Teachers and students cannot be harrassed. The Guild pledges all of its resources to protect the freedom of the faculty to teach and of the students to learn [14].

The District Senate did not act until almost a year after the first BSU demands were made. Then it adopted six statements related to the issue of student activism, including the following:

> We believe that there should be no yielding to demands or threats that are destructive of life, property, or educational programs and that no decisions made by administrators because of such demand or threats should be recognized [6].

The first college faculty resolution was adopted in January 1969 at Southwest College, which was the newest and the smallest of the colleges in the Los Angeles area. With a student body of almost all blacks plus small numbers of white and Oriental students, the college does not fulfill the hopes of its community sponsors for a tri-ethnic student body. When demonstrations began occurring, the temporary, bungalow-type buildings made it easy for militants to disrupt classes and administrative offices by direct invasion or by pounding on the outside walls as they circled around. Threats to "burn-it-down" increased the fear of faculty and staff. The faculty's resolution thus expressed gratitude to the president for the security he had provided and requested additional security to cope with "the continuance of disturbances and the mounting emotional fervor." One faculty member who signed the resolution noted that "The best way to get additional security is to remove the police from the campus." A survey in December 1968 of faculty morale reveals the seriousness of the situation:

> Within the past few months our campus community has been stunned, angered, confused, frightened, offended and polarized because of the demonstrations which have taken place on our campus. We are indignant because, prior to these occurrences, the climate on our campus indicated a positive working relationship had been established with the student body and the campus was on its way to the eventual attainment of academic excellence . . . in spite of dour predictions as to the success of an academic-oriented college in this community [13].

Trade Technical College had a milder form of activism and the faculty response was supportive of the administration, with regard to penalizing students for disruptive actions, asking for campus guards, and calling for the police during disturbances. Even though the enrollment is 45 to 50 percent black, there was less activism on this campus, mainly because the students are older and are pursuing occupational curriculums; the faculty tends to be unsympathetic to black or white militancy.

A more complex situation existed at City College. There was probably as much activism, for as extended a period of time, as on any of the seven campuses in the district. Black students comprised 25 to 30 percent of the enrollment of 10,000. The faculty did not, however, reach a consensus, and this being a larger college than Southwest, the activism was more dispersed. The faculty contained a large group of liberals, most of whom belonged to an affiliate of the AFT, and they were sympathetic to student dissent. Another group of faculty members belonged to the more conservative Los Angeles chapter of the California Teachers Association, which rivals the AFT organization. Some of the liberal arts and humanities instructors and a large majority of the technical, engineering, and science instructors were conservative; that is, they were not sympathetic to the student dissent and were openly opposed to the demonstrations.

Two special faculty groups were organized, and these will be considered in some detail. It is not known how much influence these committees may have had in allaying faculty fears and adverse reactions, but their existence measured the concern of a large number of faculty members who were sympathetic to the aspirations of the blacks and wanted to try to prevent the outbreak of more serious trouble.

Faculty and Students Together (FAST) worked for the improvement of relations between faculty and students and addressed itself specifically to one of the issues—appointment of black instructors and administrators. In a memorandum to the faculty, FAST stated:

> Forty-five percent of the student population of the area served by the Los Angeles School District is composed of students from ethnic minority groups, yet their needs are not being met because minority communities lack proportional power in determining educational policy, curricula, personnel selection, finances.

FAST recommended for endorsement by the faculty several proposals to (1) revise appointment procedures to include minority members on the selection committees; (2) require selection of instructors having "theoretical and first-hand knowledge of their [minority] history and problems, and a fundamental sympathy with and understanding of their people;" (3) appointment of administrative personnel on a quota basis, that is, "where the student body is two-thirds of minority composition, a minimum of two-thirds of the deans ought to be of similar background" [10].

The other committee, which was in actuality an *ad hoc* group of counselors, drew up a proposal suggesting that the students not be penalized indiscriminately for absences during the BSU attempt to close the college during the week of March 10, 1969. The committee pointed out that students might have been absent for various reasons, such as illness, fear, apprehension, feeling sympathy with the moral issues involved but not willing to participate, as well as active participation either for or against the strike. The committee also stated:

> Students from minority communities live in two different worlds and, in so doing, frequently must make decisions that involve strong commitments, ambivalence, and possible risk to themselves based on pressures from their community and school. In these circumstances, where they view their personal integrity as being at stake, their decision may be in response to pressures outside the school [1].

There were also critical attacks and opposition to the school's handling of the demonstrations. In a letter to the Board of Education, one faculty member attacked the administration for its reluctance to call the police to the campus and protested its "course of indecision, inaction, and appeasement . . . ," which was "leading to a continuing decline in the academic, spiritual, and moral fiber of this institution." And "persons who intimidate students and faculty, destroy property at will, disturb the peace, or deny others their constitutional rights are criminals and . . . should be arrested and prosecuted with dispatch . . ." [8].

Another example of faculty opposition to BSU activities came at Los Angeles Pierce College, where black students numbered less than 100. The faculty sponsor of the Gun Club signed a flyer entitled "Let's Tell It Like It Really Is." This flyer questioned the sincerity of two handouts by the BSU and advised Pierce College students:

> If you have the ability to read, and we know you do, the handwriting on the wall should be very apparent. The high-handed manner in which the BSU was put on campus bespeaks of a long-range plan. They were admitted on campus and in less than a week had the master plan ready to hand in with the so-called "Recommendations" listed. You be the judge; these are the facts [12].

Faculty Reaction at Other Colleges

Faculty groups usually condemned the use of intimidation, force, and violence and supported the administration in requesting the aid of police in protecting persons and property. They tried, however, to moderate the severity of their statements by expressing confidence in dialogue as a means of clarifying and negotiating educational issues [16, 17]. At San Bernardino Valley College, for example, the faculty joined with the administration to "stress their determination to have peace . . . on campus" and to warn the black students that "continued interruption of classes . . . will be dealt with firmly and appropriately." Even though this was one of the firmest statements made by a faculty group, the students were commended for their conduct during the week of the disturbances. They were urged to "work together peacefully for the common good and educational advancement of all our community" [15].

At Merritt College (in Oakland, California) the situation became very difficult, and the president of the Faculty Senate reported to the Board about "the severity of the problem," indicating that "besides the loss of college property there has been a severe loss of personal property of staff members, and that there have been physical hazards to students and faculty. . . . As a consequence, there has been a deterioration of faculty and student morale" [11].

Most faculty groups advocated leniency in dealing with student absences caused by the disturbances. At Chicago's Southeast College, after a boycott of classes in March, the president of the college recommended to the faculty that "no punitive action in connection with the settlement of the boycott will be taken" [3]. Further recommendations included such provisions as the following: no examinations will be administered in classes before March 26; and student absences from classes on March 17-18 will be considered "in light of the difficulty of accommodating work schedules, standing commitments, etc., and that such absences be treated generously" [19].

Hiring and Firing of Instructors

Nearly all faculty groups in one way or another rejected the black students' demands for a voice in the hiring and firing of instructors and administrative officials. The San Mateo faculty declared:

> . . . the employment of any individual is subject to the same process and procedure as the employment of any other individual. Moreover, the several divisions, individual members of the faculty and administration will continue to discharge their responsibilities in these processes and in recommending to the Board of Trustees the employment of specific individuals. The advice and counsel of others will be sought in the tradition of an open campus, but the responsibility for making the final decision will not be delegated [16].

There were, nevertheless, some exceptions to the rule of faculty opposition to student attacks on instructors. Two actions at Chicago's Kennedy-King College illustrate this. At one point, a ten-member faculty council recommended the transfer of two instructors who had failed to abide by the spirit of an agreement with black students of the Afro-American Club to include books by black authors in their reading lists. By a vote of 36 to 32 the faculty upheld the council's stand, and the chancellor of the district transferred the instructors [5]. Another action saw members of the social science department conducting a wildcat strike in support of the black students' demand for the ouster of a white instructor on a charge of racism; 19 of the 25 members of the department asked for her removal. Only three of the six black instructors criticized her, however. The chancellor acceded to the wishes of the students and faculty and, on the same day, also acceded to black students' demand for the replacement of the white president by a black [4].

Another incident at Kennedy-King involved the chairmen of the social sciences, humanities, and English departments. They signed agreements with the Afro-American Club "establishing and pledging compliance with certain departmental policies of requiring assignment of books by black authors" [5].

Faculty Position Papers

Faculty position papers answering the demands of black activists appeared in many colleges. They were carefully worded and gave respectful attention to the demands; many contained positive statements in sympathy and in agreement with the position of the black students. The Academic Senate of El Camino College (California) prepared a position paper directing attention to the demands and expressing the faculty's general attitude, under four main headings: "sympathy with general goals, comment on tactics of the Black Student Union, attitude toward black studies program, evaluation of non-curricular demands" [2]. The general tone of this paper was one of moderation and reasonableness, expressing the hope for a rational atmosphere where students and faculty could work together to bring about worthwhile change.

On the Central Campus of Seattle Community College, several faculty organizations worked during the early months of 1969 to prepare position papers and statements on the issues raised by the BSU. These statements reflected uneasiness over the effects of agreements made by the president, members of his staff, and the board of trustees. Members of the Applied Arts and Science Division felt very threatened by some of the BSU demands, since their educational program was in jeopardy. The BSU and SDS were attacking the tracking system and complaining about programs that prepared students only for the most menial jobs. Changes in policy could, however, result in the elimination of some occupational programs from the curriculum, the faculty felt. Some of the professional organizations indicated their respect for "movements motivated by a sincere desire to improve the educational program," although they were opposed to "any threats of action, violent or otherwise, which deny the rights of others and which are motivated by a desire to disrupt and to close the operations of the . . . college." The Seattle faculty asked that students who participated in the attempts to close the college by violence be referred to the student discipline—an action unlike the actions taken by Los Angeles, San Mateo, and Chicago faculties [17]. The Seattle Community College Federation of Teachers issued a resolution affirming belief in the involvement of students and citizens in college affairs while raising various questions regarding policy-making and decision-making problems that were being faced by the faculty at the time.

Formal Studies of Faculty Reaction

Several surveys of faculty opinion have been undertaken by means of prepared instruments or questionnaires. For instance, at Los Angeles City College, faculty members expressed their views on various aspects of the campus demonstrations that occurred during the week of March 10-14, 1969; 60 percent of the faculty completed the questionnaire [7]. Responses concerning the administration's performance during the week was supportive, with two-thirds evaluating it as generally good or outstanding. Twenty-six percent answered "outstanding, support them 100%," 41 percent answered "generally good," and 33 percent voted "poor, policy not firm enough." No one answered "poor, policy too firm." The younger faculty members (with ten years or less of teaching experience) were more supportive—77 to 50 percent—than the older members—who disapproved, 43 to 23 percent. The men approved in about the same proportions as women—68 to 64 percent. The lines of communication between faculty and administration received an adverse vote: only 12 percent of those responding answered "quite satisfactory" while 47 percent considered them "poor"; those answering "adequate, considering the circumstances" comprised 41 percent.

When asked to indicate "to what degree do you agree with the issues involved in the strike?" a wide range of answers was tabulated, but this may have been because of the wording of the choices. Only three (or 1 percent) of the respondents agreed wholeheartedly and supported the strike, while 55 (or 26 percent) answered that the "issues are fictitious, do not support in any sense." Forty percent checked item "agree with some issues, but not others." An indication of faculty sentiment toward activism may be inferred from the question: "Did you use class time during the week for discussion of the strike or strike issues?" Ten percent said "yes, on suggestion of students," 41 percent replied, "yes, on my own initiative." Nine percent answered "yes, but only after outside interruption," and 40 percent said "no."

For 54 percent of the respondents, no classes were interrupted. Another 23 percent reported one class interruption. Three class interruptions were reported by 7 percent, and four, five, or more than five interruptions were reported by 4 percent (or nine instructors). Of those whose classes were interrupted, the older instructors and the faculty men described the verbal conduct of the students who interrupted their classes as "forceful language, implied threats" (55 and 45 percent, respectively), as contrasted with 21 for younger faculty and 29 for women. No women and only five men (one young, four older) reported being assaulted.

A study by the Berkeley Center for Research and Development in Higher Education confirms the general tenor of the faculty attitudes that has been described here. The study polled the opinions of 1,069 faculty members from six colleges—including a medium-size public junior college. The majority of this faculty group favored giving students responsibility for formulating social rules and regulations. On academic matters, however, the faculty revealed a reluctance to share their prerogatives with the students. They favored some student participation in such matters, but only in a subordinant, advisory role. A significant number of faculty members nevertheless did favor an "equal vote" of students in academic matters [20].

From this brief survey of faculty reactions in several different places, it could be postulated tentatively that the liberal arts and humanities instructors in the junior colleges were likely to be sympathetic to student dissent—when they were not being endangered directly—whereas technical, occupational, and science instructors were less likely to support dissent and were more favorably disposed toward a hard line on student militants. Nearly all, when in danger, favored strong measures toward dissident students.

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ED 063925

ERIC
Volume 4, Number 10
JUNIOR COLLEGE RESEARCH REVIEW
June 1970
Published by the American Association of Junior Colleges

JUNIOR COLLEGE BOARDS OF TRUSTEES

The concept of a lay board that represents the people is a major pillar in America's representative democracy and is the essence of the nation's belief in separation of powers. This is evidenced within the public as well as private sectors of society. A basic premise upon which this philosophy rests is the belief that the sum of common men's collective wisdom, as voiced through the elective bodies, is, by definition, wise. Just as, in the words of Clemenceau, "War is too important an endeavor to be left solely to the generals," so schools are too important to be left solely to the professionals. A lay board of trustees is simply another expression of this political and social truism.

During the current period of campus unrest, there has been much confusion about the proper role and relationship between lay boards and professional administrators. This confusion of roles has the potential of creating additional chaos and can do irreparable damage to the educational process, for it is during times of stress that institutional roles must be clearly delineated and adhered to.

Role identification can be aided by analyzing data from relevant research. This issue of the *Junior College Research Review* is concerned with the roles and relationship between boards of trustees and chief administrative officers. Six pertinent research reports have been examined, all selected from materials processed by the ERIC Clearinghouse for Junior Colleges and indexed and abstracted in ***Research in Education.*** Copies of these are available in either hard copy or microfiche from the ERIC Document Reproduction Services, as explained on page four.

In one document (ED 014 975), the board's role is described as dual: internal and external. Internal functions are outlined as follows:

1. the board is a legislative body, not an executive body
2. it delegates some of its policy-making authority to other agencies (academic senates, departments, etc.)
3. the authority of the board resides in the board as a whole and not within individuals; exceptions would be only as the board delegates.

External functions are those that:

1. represent the constituency and interpret social trends into institutional policy
2. ensure that adequate funds are available for the functioning of the institution
3. bear the legal responsibility and authority for all aspects of the operation of the institution.

"The Role of the Trustees," "Board Relationships to Administrators and Faculties," and "Board Responsibilities for a Climate of Creativity" are among the titles of selected papers from the American Association of Junior Colleges' 46th Annual Convention held at St. Louis (ED 016 448). Of significance was the establishment of justifications for the theoretical base upon which professionals operate. A professional, or expert, possesses a particular body of knowledge which those outside of that profession do not possess. And he remains an expert or professional only so long as he is exercising his opinion within his particular sphere of knowledge; once he ventures outside of this area to express himself, he becomes a nonexpert and his opinion joins that of other lay people's opinions, with nothing special to recommend it above the others. Certainly a barrister's judgment relative to the proper technique for the removal of an appendix could hardly qualify as expert medical opinion. Nor could a surgeon's interpretation of a particular judicial opinion stand as expert legal advice.

Where serious friction exists in board relationships with school administration, it is largely because of insufficient grasp or understanding of the proper roles that have been established in our society for the various participants within the structure for decision making. A school district's innovativeness and its understanding of the roles are positively related to the amount of agreement between the citizens of the community and the teachers in the college. Districts with high agreement between external and internal segments will adopt more innovations at an earlier date than districts that lack this basic agreement.

Corning Community College (New York) has developed a set of by-laws, in an attempt to delineate these roles. The by-laws deal with:

1. administrative control and powers and duties of the board of trustees
2. terms of office and duties of board officers and committees
3. time, place, frequency, and procedures of board meetings
4. functions and memberships of the advisory committees
5. organization and duties of the professional staff
6. faculty and faculty council responsibilities
7. appointment and termination of academic staff
8. salary schedules
9. evening and summer division schedules
10. leave policies (sick, sabbatical, military, etc.) for the professional staff
11. leave policy for nonacademic personnel
12. designation of administrative offices
13. handling of bids, cash, and contracts (ED 024 366).

A trustee of the Monroe Community College (New York) suggests a set of "do's" and "don'ts" that are designed to generate thought and discussion:

1. do try to see your institution as a whole
2. do keep informed; ask a lot of questions
3. do participate actively in the development of long-range plans
4. don't meddle or try to run the college
5. don't act as an appeal board in administrative affairs
6. don't get involved in the details of appointment and personnel matters
7. don't be narrow in your concepts (ED 016 448).

A plan for utilizing talent in the formulation of policy was devised at the College of Marin (California). The establishment of educational objectives and a system of governance to achieve these objectives was considered necessary as a first step. It was concluded that colleges generally operate under an administrative pattern characterized as the "traditional system of hierarchy," including (1) a rigid chain of command, (2) fixed division of labor, motivation, control and direction of people by persuasion, (3) reward or punishment, and (4) a generally low opinion of both faculty and students. A "productive system" is more acceptable to modern educators because it enhances both professional and student effectiveness, the achievement of personal goals, the withdrawal of administrative direction, and the de-emphasis of compartmentalization and proliferation of administrative titles. A further suggestion is to rotate administrative assignments. Under this system both student and teacher are involved in the formulation of institutional policy but not its enactment. The board exists to *enact* policy for the district (although it can *formulate* policy, too). Faculty members are truly involved in policy formulation when they can be sure that the board will enact it to an acceptable degree (ED 027 002).

The Ohio Board of Regents approached their role in relationship to the local community colleges in a generalized manner. A method to establish community colleges was outlined with most of the authority resting with the local boards. The regents were concerned primarily with the following:

1. the individual college must meet the requirements of and mesh with the state's larger system of higher education

2. the regents must approve or disapprove the college's official plans, degree programs, and student fee schedules

3. the college's proposal must include and contain specified types of information (ED 019 954).

A bibliography by Giles and Olson comprises one of the documents selected for this review. With listings from both published and unpublished materials, the bibliography consists of three sections: (1) the new trustee or administrator, (2) the role of the trustee and the board at the community college level, and (3) the role of the trustee and the board in higher education. Also included are materials pertaining to the views of junior college trustee board members, an analysis of selected boards' policies, an analysis of trustees' concepts of higher education, specific guidelines for boards, an analysis of faculty handbooks, and an analysis of chief administrative officers' responsibilities (ED 014 974).

Abel B. Sykes, Jr.
President, Compton College
Compton, California

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